FOSSIL MAMMALS OF AFRICA No. 18 : EAST AFRICAN MIOCENE AND PLEISTOCENE CHALICO'THERES

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THE BRITISH MUSEUM (NATURAL HISTORY)

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By P. M. BUTLER

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## SYNOPSIS

The European and Asiatic species of Chalicotherium (C. goldfussi, C. grande, C. grande rhodanicum, C. styriacum, Chalicotherium sp., C. wetzleri, C. salinum, C. brevirostris and C. pilgrimi) are reviewed. A new species, Chalicotherium rusingense from the Lower Miocene of Kavirondo Gulf area, Kenya is described and figured in detail.

Pleistocene material from Olduvai Gorge, Tanganyika is identified with Ancylotherium hennigi (Dietrich) and its relationship with the Lower Pliocene species A. pentelicum (Gaudry \& Lartet) from Greece and Iran is confirmed.

Ancylotherium and the related genera Phyllotillon and (Metaschizotheriumn) are discussed and Phyllotillon betpakdalensis (Flerov) is made the type species of a new genus Borissiakia.

## INTRODUCTION

Chalicotheres are known to have inhabited Eurasia from the Upper Eocene (Eomoropus) to the Pleistocene (Nestoritherium), but in Africa only Pleistocene forms have hitherto been described (Andrews 1923, Hopwood 1926, Dietrich 1942, George 1950). Additional material from the Pleistocene of Olduvai Gorge,

Tanganyika, is described in this paper ; it is identified as Ancylotherium hennigi (Dietrich) and its relationship to $A$. pentelicum from the Lower Pliocene of Greece and Iran is confirmed.

Much more abundant material has been obtained from Rusinga, Koru and other supposedly Lower Miocene sites in the Kavirondo Gulf area of Kenya. This material represents a new species, Chalicotherium rusingense, a primitive relation of the well-known C. (=Macrotherium) grande of the Upper Miocene of Europe. The same species occurs at Napak, Uganda (Butler 1962).

The main centre of chalicotherian evolution appears to have been in Asia. By Oligocene times two main branches of the family had differentiated: the Schizotheriinae and the Chalicotheriinae. Though members of both branches invaded Africa, this continent seems to have formed an evolutionary backwater, for both the known African genera occurred in Europe at earlier dates: Chalicotherium in the Upper Oligocene and Ancylotherium in the Lower Pliocene.

Most of the material described is the property of the National Museum of Kenya, Nairobi, and I wish to express my best thanks to Dr. L. S. B. Leakey for permission to study it. Acknowledgement is also due to Dr. E. I. White, F.R.S., for access to African chalicotherian material in the British Museum (Natural History), and to Dr. W. W. Bishop for the loan of specimens that he collected at Napak. Extensive use was made for comparative purposes of the important collections of chalicotherian material in the British Museum and in the Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle in Paris, and I am greatly indebted to the staff of these museums for much valued assistance, particularly to Father R. Lavocat and to Dr. A. J. Sutcliffe. I also wish to acknowledge the kindness of Prof. J. Viret and Prof. E. Kuhn-Schneider in sending casts of specimens, and of Prof. H. Tobien and Prof. S. Schaub in giving valuable advice.

## Subfamily Chalicotherinae

Genus CHALICOTHERIUM Kaup, 1833
Review of European and Asiatic Species
The type species of Chalicotherium is C. goldfussi Kaup (1833) from the Pontian of Europe, ranging from Spain through Germany to Greece. This replaces the Upper Miocene species usually known as Macrotherium grande (de Blainville 1849), which was based on material from Sansan (Vindobonian). There is little doubt that $M$. grande is directly ancestral to $C$. goldfussi and the late Vindobonian $M$. grande rhodanicum Depéret (1892) and the Nikolsburg (Sarmatian) material described by Abel (1922) are transitional. A generic distinction between Macrotherium and Chalicotherium is therefore not justified, and Macrotherium must fall into synonymy (von Koenigswald 1932). The ancestor of C. grande is probably C. wetzleri Kowalewsky (1874) from the Aquitanian. No specimens of Chalicotherium have been recorded from European strata of undoubted Burdigalian age.
C. salinum (Forster Cooper) from the Chinji and Nagri formations of the Siwaliks (probably late Miocene to early Pliocene, Thenius 1959) is closely related to C. grande. However, C. brevirostris (Colbert 1934) from the Upper Miocene of Mongolia is quite
distinct from the European species, and may be the ancestor of the Pleistocene genus Nestoritherium. The only other Asiatic species, C. pilgrimi (Forster Cooper), is a very primitive form resembling Schizotherium. Von Koenigswald (1932) included Schizotherium turgaicum Borissiak in the genus Chalicotherium, but additional information on its structure (Borissiak 1946, Belyaeva 1954) has confirmed its relationship to Schizotherium priscum. Moropus matthewi Holland \& Peterson and $M$. merriami Holland \& Peterson were also transferred to Chalicotherium by von Koenigswald following a suggestion by Matthew (1929), but on what appear to me to be insufficient grounds.

## Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup

Text-figs. IE, 5H, 13

1823 Pangolin gigantesque, Cuvier, p. 193, pl. 16, figs. 26, 27.
1832 Manis gigantea Cuvier ; Kaup \& Scholl, p. 7.
1832 Lophiodon Goldfussi Kaup \& Scholl, p. Io (Nomen nudum?)
I833 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup, pp. 4-6, pl. 7, figs. 3-5.
I833 Chalicotherium antiquum Kaup, pp. 6, 7, pl. 7, figs. 6, 7.
1844 Macrotherium giganteum Pictet, p. 232, pl. 8, fig. 5.
I849 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; de Blainville, p. 82, pl. 8.
I849 Chalicothevium antiquum Kaup ; de Blainville, p. 83, pl. 8.
1859 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup; Kaup, p. I, pl. I, figs. I-3, 5.
I859 Chalicotherium antiquum Kaup; Kaup, p. I, pl. I, figs. 4, 7.
1885 Chalicotherium baltavavensis Pethö, p. 69.
1886 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; Lydekker, p. 162 (in part).
1891 Chalicotherium antiquum Kaup; Schlosser, p. 87.
1920 Chalicotherium Goldfussi Kaup ; Abel, p. 30, text-figs. 3, 5, 7 .
1922 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; Abel, p. xi8, text-figs. IO8-III.
1927 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; Barnes, p. 22, text-fig. 7.
1929 Chalicotherium cf. goldfussi Kaup ; Arambourg \& Piveteau, p. 23, pl. 3, figs. I-3.
1929 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; Matthew, p. 5 I8.
1932 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; von Koenigswald, p. ı4, pl. I, figs. 9, ıo ; pl. 3, fig. 37.
1937 (?) Ancylopoda gen. et sp. indet., Bohlin, p. IO4, pl. 9, figs. 7-9.
1939 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; Wehrli, p. 26, pls. I, 2.
1943 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; Villalta \& Crusafont, p. 153, text-fig. 24, pl. 9, figs. 3-5.
1949 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup; Zapfe, p. 69, text-figs. I-3.
The type material is Pontian, but the palate and cervical vertebra described by Abel (1922) from Nikolsburg are probably Sarmatian (Thenius 1959). A metacarpal II (M.II349) and an astragalus (M.II35I) (Text-fig. I3) from Pikermi, now in the British Museum (Natural History), belong to Chalicotherium and may be referred to this species. A phalanx from Tsaidam, China, described by Bohlin (1937) may also belong to this species.

Wehrli (1939) has redescribed the teeth and phalanges from the type locality (Eppelsheim). The molars are larger and proportionately broader than in the type material of C. grande from Sansan, but are not so clearly distinguishable from C. grande rhodanicum. The protocone is usually isolated from the protoconule (Matthew 1929), the Nikolsburg specimen being intermediate in this respect. The premolars are more reduced, and $P_{2}$ is absent in a specimen from Salonica
(Arambourg \& Piveteau 1929). $P_{2}-P_{4}$ are figured by Barnes (1927) ; the two associated teeth identified by Wehrli (I939) as $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ and $\mathrm{P}_{4}$ are probably $\mathrm{P}_{4}$ and $\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{I}}$ respectively. In the juvenile skull from Salonica the unerupted $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ and $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ show a partial division of the deuterocone into protocone and hypocone, as in some specimens of Moropus (Osborn I890).
C. baltavarensis is based on a mandibular fragment containing a molariform tooth. A cast of this specimen is in the British Museum (Natural History). The tooth is fully molariform and therefore unlikely to be a premolar. It is too small (length 25 mm .) for a molar of $C$. goldfussi. The lack of a metastylid excludes Ancylotherium pentelicum, to which Schlosser (I89I) referred it. It is tentatively identified as $\mathrm{Pd}_{4}$ of $C$. goldfussi. Anteriorly there are alveoli for $\mathrm{Pd}_{3}$ and $\mathrm{Pd}_{2}$, and then a short diastema ( $20-25 \mathrm{~mm}$.). According to Pethö ( I 885 ), there is a trace of a canine alveolus at the anterior end of the specimen.

The metacarpal from Pikermi is very much like specimens of C. grande. The astragalus from Pikermi is relatively lower than in C.grande, and has a more extensive contact with the cuboid. Metatarsal III (Zapfe 1949) is broader than in C. grande. Basal phalanges described by Wehrli (1939) and by Villalta \& Crusafont (1943) are larger than in typical C. grande. Wehrli's fig. 26 shows a phalanx from the manus and fig. 25 one from the pes ; in the manus the metacarpal facet occupies a greater proportion of the dorsal surface than in C. grande.

Macrotherium giganteum Pictet was based upon a combination of the ungual phalanx from Eppelsheim described by Cuvier ( $=C$. goldfussi) and Lartet's material from Sansan ( $=C$. grande). The specific name giganteum has priority over grande, and in order to avoid changing a well known name I here select the ungual phalanx as the lectotype of Pictet's species, which thus becomes synonymous with C. goldfussi.

## Chalicotherium grande (de Blainville)

Text-figs. ID, $4 \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{D}, 5 \mathrm{G}, 8 \mathrm{C}$, IOG-L, IIF-J, I2F-J, I3-I5, I6E, I7D
1837 Anoplotherium Lartet, p. 88.
1837 a Macrotherium Lartet, p. 424.
1839 Anoplotherium magnum Lartet, p. 26. Nomen nudum.
1844 Macrotherium giganteum Pictet, pp. 232, 233 (in part). See also discussion of C. goldfussi above.
1848 Anisodon (Choelichotherium) Pomel, p. 686.
1849 Anoplotherium grande 'Lartet'; de Blainville, p. 66, pls. 3, 8.
1849 Chalicotherium anisodon de Blainville, pp. 68, i52, pl. 9.
1850 Chalicotherium grande (de Blainville) Gervais, p. 91.
1850 Macrotherium giganteum 'Lartet' ; Gervais, P. 135, pl. 43.
185 I Macrotherium sansaniense Lartet, p. 22.
185I Anisodon magnum Lartet, p. 30. (The name Anisodon first appears in the MS catalogue of Lartet's collection (dated 1847). This is the "Cat. Man." referred to by Lartet (1851). It is preserved in the Paris Museum).
1853 Chalicotherium grande 'Gervais' ; Pictet, p. 337, pl. 15, fig. 6.
1855 Macrotherium Lartet ; de Blainville, p. 37, explanation of unnumbered plate.
1859 Anisodon larteti Kaup, pl. 2, figs. 1-5 (=Chalicotherium antiquum, in part).
1847 Chalicotherium (Anisodon) ; Kowalewsky, p. 175, pl. 8, figs. 73, 74.

1877 Macrotherium giganterm ' Lartet'; Gervais, p. 226, pl. 2, figs. 2-5.
1886 Chalicotherium goldfussi Kaup ; Lydekker, p. 161 (in part).
1891 Chalicotherium magnum (Lartet) Filhol, p. 294, pls. 43-46.
1892 Macrotherium grande 'Lartet' ; Depéret, p. 6i.
1893 Macrotherium giganteum 'Lartet' ; Osborn, p. 12I, text-fig. 3.
1898 Macrotherium grande 'Lartet '; Roger, p. 29, pl. 3, fig. 7.
1902 Chalicotherium anisodon de Blainville ; Schlosser, p. 212. (States the name has priority but rejects because of non-usage).
1913 Macrothevium grande 'Lartet' ; Holland \& Peterson, pp. 209, 217, text-figs. 4, 15, 98.
1913 Macrotherium grande 'Lartet'; Wegner, p. 246, pl. 14, figs. 27-30.
1920 Macrotherium magnum Lartet ; Abel, p. 50, text-figs. II, 13, I4.
1922 Macrotherium magnum Lartet ; Abel, p. 197, text-fig. 162A, B.
1923 (?) Macrotherium oggenhausense Dietrich, p. 190, text-fig. I. (See Schlosser 1926).
1925 Macrotherium grande 'Lartet'; Stehlin, p. 139, text-fig. 18a, b.
1928 Macrotheriusm grande 'Lartet'; Dietrich, p. 367.
1932 Chalicotherium grande '(Lartet )' ; von Koenigswald, pp. 10, 13, pl. 1, figs. 8, 9, 14-17 ;
pl. 2, fig. 22 ; pl. 3, figs. 30-36.
1935 Macrotherium sansaniense Lartet ; Boule \& Piveteau, p. 637, text-figs 1026, 1029.
1936 Macrotherium magnum Lartet ; Bohlin, p. 323.
1943 Macrotherium grande 'Lartet'; Villalta \& Crusafont, p. 125, text-figs. I-23, pls. I-9.
1949 Chalicotherium grande '(Lartet )' ; Zapfe, p. 69, text-figs. I-3.
1949a Chalicothevium grande '(Lartet)' ; Zapfe, p. 176.
$195^{8}$ Chalicotherium grande '( Lartet)'; Mottl, p. 46.
1964 Chalicotherium grande de Blainville ; Ginsberg, p. II.
The erroneous ascription of the name grande to Lartet began with de Blainville (1849). In 1837 Lartet did not use a specific name but merely referred to " un grand Anoplotherium " ; in 1839 he used the name magnum for the same material (without description).

Chalicotherium grande is characteristic of the Vindobonian of Europe. Details of its anatomy have been described in many papers, of which the more important are as follows : de Blainville (1849) figured teeth, skull and mandible, and also (1855) limb-bones and vertebrae. Lartet (1851) described the skeletal remains from Sansan. Gervais (1850) re-figured the limb-bones and also figured an atlas vertebra. Gaudry (1862) gave various details of the limb-bones which he compared with Ancylotherium. Kowalewsky (1874) figured some teeth. Gervais (1877) discussed and figured the feet. Filhol (r89r) gave an account of his discovery of a fairly complete skeleton including a skull, unfortunately badly crushed; he described various details of the skull figured by de Blainville and figured some mandibles, one of them containing milk dentition. Wegner (1913) described some teeth and an astragalus. Holland \& Peterson (1913) gave a new restoration of the manus, figured the astragalus, and compared the various bones in some detail with those of Moropus. Abel (1920) compared C. grande (" Macrotherium ") with Ancylotherium ("Chalicotherium") ; his conclusions were criticised by Dietrich (r928). Von Koenigswald (1932) compared C. grande with Metaschizotherium and figured a molar and some phalanges. Villalta \& Crusafont (1943) described teeth and limb-bones, including a number from a single individual. Zapfe (1949) figured a third metatarsal which he compared with C. goldfussi.

The specimen from Sansan figured by de Blainville as C. anisodon and by Filhol as C. magnum var. secundarium is pathological. $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ is separated from $\mathrm{P}_{\mathbf{3}}$ and lies in the diastema, considerably tilted forwards in the jaw. There exists in Paris another half-mandible with normal premolar alveoli, which appears to belong to the opposite side of the same individual.

## Chalicotherium grande rhodanicum (Depéret)

1887 Chalicotherium aff. modicum Depéret, p. 228, pl. 13, fig. 35.
1892 Macrotherium grande var. rhodanicum Depéret, p. 63, pl. 2, fig. 1, pls. 3, 4.
Specimens from La Grive St. Alban are larger and more progressive than typical specimens of $C$. grande from Sansan, and are distinguished as the subspecies rhodanicum.
C. grande rhodanicum is known from an incomplete skull and mandible, together with metacarpals and phalanges (Depéret 1892). Isolated molariform teeth compared by Depéret (1887) with C. modicum ( $=$ Schizotherium priscum) are probably milk molars of C. grande rhodanicum. Depéret's statement that metacarpal II has almost no contact with the trapezoid is not borne out by his figure.

## Chalicotherium styriacum Bach

Text-fig. 4 E
1913 Chalicotherium styriacum Bach, p. 688, pl. 28, fig. $1 a, b$.
This species is based on a mandible from Eggersdorf (probably of Pontian age), a cast of which is in the British Museum (Natural History). It is rather small, considering its late date : the molars fall into the size range of C. grande from Sansan. The metastylid is more distinct than in any known specimen of $C$. grande, and, so far as can be judged from the worn teeth, the entoconid of $\mathrm{P}_{4}$ is absent.

## Chalicotherium sp .

1913 Chalicotherium sp., Bach, p. 687, pl. 28, figs. 2-4.
Bach (1913) described some mandible fragments and an incomplete upper moiar from Voitsberg, regarded as Middle Miocene by Pia \& Sickenberg (1934). They appear to represent a smaller form than C. grande. The total length of the lower molars is 82 mm ., whereas in specimens of $C$. grande from Sansan this measurement ranges from 90 to 105 mm . In an unworn molar there is a small but distinct metastylid.

Chalicotherium wetzleri Kowalewsky
Text-fig. 8B
1837 Palaeotherium schinzii Meyer, p. 676. (Nomen nudum).
1847 Chalicotherium wetzleri Kowalewsky, p. 248, pl. 8.
1883 Chalicotherium modicum Gaudry ; Schlosser, p. 165.

1891 Chalicotherium wetzlevi Kowalewsky ; Schlosser, p. 87.
1914 Chalicotherium wetzleri Kowalewsky; Stehlin, p. 187.
1929 Macrotherium wetzleri (Kowalewsky) Viret, p. 267.
1932 Schizotherium wetzleri (Kowalewsky) von Koenigswald, p. 16, pl. 1, fig. 7.
Palaeotherium schinzii was based on a mandible from Bollingen, now in Zürich. I am greatly indebted to Prof. Tobien for his help in finding this specimen, and to Prof. Kuhn-Schneider for sending me a cast (Text-fig. 8B). The identity of $P$. schinzii with $C$. wetzleri was suggested by Schlosser (1891) and accepted by Stehlin (1914). The name Anisodon schinzii mentioned by Schlosser does not appear to have been published previously, and may have been a manuscript name. The original description is very brief : " um ein Viertel kleiner als Palaeotherium magnum und ungefähr eben so viel grösser als Palaeotherium crassum'". Prof. Schaub kindly informs me that it was Stehlin's opinion that this poor characterisation could not validate the name schinzii, taking into account the great diversity of Palaeotherium species. Rather than revive a name that has been unused for well over a century it seems wise to accept this opinion.
C. wetzleri is Aquitanian in age, and might be expected to be more primitive than C. grande. Nevertheless the size difference is slight. The total molar length is 92 mm . on the Bollingen mandible, and slightly more in a specimen measured by von Koenigswald (1932), and the molars therefore fall within the lower part of the size range of $C$. grande from Sansan. The premolar/molar index is rather high (54), but still within the range of $C$. grande $(47-55) . \quad \mathrm{M}_{3}$ is similar to $\mathrm{M}_{2}$, a clear distinction from Schizotherium, where $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ has an enlarged hypoconulid. The main difference from $C$. grande is the presence of a distinct metastylid, a primitive character found also in Schizotherium. $\mathrm{Pd}^{4}$ and $\mathrm{Pd}^{3}$ also resemble Schizotherium in the completeness of the protoloph. The Bollingen mandible differs from C. grande in that the step in the upper border anterior to $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ is a little more pronounced. The diastema seems to have been at least as long as in $C$. grande, but the anterior end of the jaw is not preserved. A juvenile mandible from St. Gérand-le-Puy described by Filhol (I879) belongs not to C. wetzleri, as Viret (1949) suggested, but to Phyllotillon.

Viret (I929) referred to C. wetzleri two basal phalanges, one apparently from the manus, the other from the pes. They are much smaller in proportion to the teeth than in C. grande, and reference is somewhat doubtful. They might belong to an unknown smaller species, or to Phyllotillon.

Whether Chalicotherium was present in the Stampian is still uncertain. According to Filhol (1877), chalicotherian material from the Phosphorites of Quercy is not homogeneous, and primitive species of Chalicotherium might have been confused with Schizotherium priscum.

## Chalicotherium salinum (Forster Cooper)

1876 (?) Manis sindiensis Lydekker, p. 64, pl. 8, figs. II-I4.
1922 Macrotherium salinum Forster Cooper, p. 542, text-figs. I-3.
1929 Macrotherium salinum Forster Cooper, ; Matthew, p. 517.
1932 Chalicotherium salinum (Forster Cooper) von Koenigswald, p. 22.
1935 Macrotherium salinum Forster Cooper ; Colbert, p. 167, text-figs. 72-76.

This species is known from the Chinji and Nagri (late Miocene-early Pliocene) formations of the Siwaliks. It is based on an isolated $\mathrm{M}^{3}$; additional material was described by Colbert (1935). It averages rather smaller than C. grande. In the upper molars the protoloph is complete, and there is a sharp ridge on the buccal slope of the paracone. A basal phalanx of the manus is proportionately a little narrower than in C. grande. In two middle phalanges there is a very prominent volar process at the proximal end, uncommon in C.grande but present in the phalanx that constitutes the holotype of Manis sindiense. In other respects $C$. salinum appears to agree closely with C. grande, and the two species are undoubtedly closely related.

## Chalicotherium brevirostris (Colbert)

1934 Macrotherium brevirostris Colbert, p. 374, text-figs. II, 12, 13a, $c, e, g(? d, f), 14^{i}(? h, l)$.
1934 Macrotherium sp., Colbert, p. 381, text-figs. 14h, $k-0$.
This species is known only from the Tung Gur formation (Upper Miocene) of Mongolia. The upper molars agree in size and proportions with those of C. grande, but the premolars are more reduced, as in C. goldfussi. In the holotype the protoloph of the molars is complete, as in C. salinum. The skull differs from that of C. grande in several respects, detailed by Colbert (1934). Upper canines are absent. The lower jaw and teeth are unknown.

The only postcranial bones known are a metatarsal IV and some phalanges. The metatarsal is rather small and may belong to a smaller individual than the skull. The width and thickness of its shaft bear the same proportion to the length of the bone as in C. grande, but the dorsovolar diameters of the proximal and distal ends are proportionately greater ; in lateral view the ends of the bone project beyond the dorsal surface of the shaft, whereas in C. grande the dorsal surface of the metatarsal is nearly flat. A basal phalanx, probably from digit II of the pes (Colbert 1934 fig. 13c) agrees well in size and proportions with specimens of $C$. grande. Two other basal phalanges may reasonably be referred to $C$. brevirostris, though Colbert believed that they belonged to a larger species. One (fig. $14 l$ ) agrees well in size with phalanges of C. grande from digit III of the manus, though it is rather more parallelsided and less broadened proximally than in most specimens of that species. It is not very different, however, from a phalanx from Spain figured by Villalta \& Crusafont (1943). In shape it also resembles a phalanx of C. salinum, which is smaller in size. A phalanx probably from digit IV of the pes (fig. $\mathrm{I} 4 h$ ) is a little larger than in C. grande; its metatarsal articulation occupies a somewhat smaller proportion of the dorsal length than in that species. Five of the six middle phalanges figured by Colbert, though differing greatly in size, can be matched with specimens of $C$. grande, and there is no reason why they should not be referred to C. brevirostris. The aberrant specimen (fig. I3d), which has a more dorsally facing proximal articulation, might belong to one of the Schizotheriinae. This may also be true of the ungual phalanges, which are much lower in proportion to their length than in C. grande. One of them (fig. i3f) is also very broad, with a wide cleft, resembling a specimen of Schizotherium turgaicum figured by Belyaeva (1954).

## Chalicotheriumi pilgrimi (Forster Cooper)

Text-figs. 1B, 4A, I4

1910 Schizotherium sp. ind., Pilgrim, p. 67.
1912 Schizotherium sp. ind., Pilgrim, p. 36.
1920 Schizotherium pilgrimi Forster Cooper, p. 362.
1929 Schizotherium pilgrimi Forster Cooper ; Matthew, p. 5 I8.
1932 Chalicotherium pilgrimi (Forster Cooper) von Koenigswald, p. 22.
1935 Schizotherium pilgrimi Forster Cooper ; Colbert, p. 162.
This species, from the Bugti Beds (Lower Miocene) of Baluchistan, resembles Schizotherium priscum in its relatively small size, and also in most features of the upper molar pattern, for example the relatively buccal position of the ectoloph (Text-fig. Iв). However, the length/width index of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ is 106, which is lower than in S. priscum (IIO-II5) but falls within the range of C. grande (104-III). There is a well-developed metastylid on $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{Pd}_{4}$, present in Schizotherium but also in C. wetzleri.

Although Forster-Cooper did not refer any postcranial material to this species, he described from the same beds a metatarsal II (Text-fig. 14) and two basal phalanges which are undoubtedly chalicotheriine and probably belong to C. pilgrimi. The only other chalicothere so far recognised from the beds is Phyllotillon naricus Pilgrim, a schizotheriine which could not be the possessor of the bones in question ; moreover, phalanges referable to this species occur. If the metatarsal and phalanges are correctly referred to C. pilgrimi, it would be necessary to follow von Koenigswald (1932) in removing the species from Schizotherium, in spite of the retention of primitive characters in the teeth.

## Chalicotherium rusingense sp. nov.

Text-figs. $\mathrm{x}-2 \mathrm{o}$
Diagnosis. A small species of Chalicotherium with teeth similar in size to those of $C$. pilgrimi and Schizotherium priscum ; resembling these in the presence of a metastylid on the lower molars (except in a few individuals), but differing from them in that the paracone and metacone are situated about half-way across the crown. Canines present in both jaws ; incisors $0 / 3$. Snout relatively elongated ; diastema proportionately longer than in C. grande. Astragalus less depressed than in C. grande. Basal phalanges of the manus more elongated than in C. grande, especially in digit III.

Holotype. B.M.N.H., no. M. 25270 . A left maxilla with upper dentition, from site Rio7, Rusinga Is.

Distribution. Lower Miocene (?) beds of Kenya (Rusinga, Karumbu, Mfwangano, Songhor, Koru) and Uganda (Napak).

Description.
Upper molars. (Text-figs. IC, 2, 3A.)
Associated upper molars are present in six specimens : all three molars are
preserved in the holotype, though fairly heavily worn ; in $\mathrm{R}_{137}$.49* $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ is well preserved, and $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ are badly broken ; R483.5I and Ri382.5I contain $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ in association ; M14203 and an un-numbered specimen from site R3I contain $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{3}$. In addition there are $\mathrm{I}_{4}$ fairly complete isolated molars and a number of fragments.

The following measurements were made wherever possible:-(I) the greatest anteroposterior length, (2) the transverse width perpendicular to (I), (3) the anterior oblique width across the parastyle and protocone, (4) the posterior oblique width across the mesostyle and hypocone. (Tables I and II). When the results were plotted on probability paper (Harding 1949) it was found that the specimens did not form a unimodal population : five specimens, containing 7 molars, formed a secondary grouping near the upper limit of the range of variation. It is therefore possible to distinguish a large form from the typical form of the species. The following specimens are referred to the large form :-

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{R}_{483.5 \mathrm{I}}\left(\mathrm{M}^{1}, \mathrm{M}^{2}\right) \text { from Kiahera, Rusinga. } \\
& \mathrm{R}_{41 \mathrm{II} .48}\left(\mathrm{M}^{1}\right) \text { from the top of Kiahera Hill, Rusinga. } \\
& \mathrm{MI}_{4} 202\left(\mathrm{M}^{3}\right) \text { from Koru. } \\
& \mathrm{RI}_{382.5 \mathrm{I}}\left(\mathrm{M}^{1}, \mathrm{M}^{2}\right) \text { from Hiwegi, Rusinga. } \\
& \mathrm{R}_{533.5 \mathrm{I}\left(\mathrm{M}^{3}\right) \text { from Kamasengere, Rusinga. }}
\end{aligned}
$$

The first three of these sites have also yielded upper molars of the typical form so that the difference cannot be due to geological age. The disproportion in numbers (29 teeth of the typical form : 7 of the large form) disfavours a sexual difference. It is possible that two closely related species were present, differing in their ecology : the large form may have occupied a habitat where it was less liable to fossilisation. However, as morphological distinctions between the two forms are very slight, and wide variations in size are known in other chalicotheres, such as Phyllotillon betpakdalensis (Borissiak 1946), it is not proposed at present to give the large form a distinct specific name.
$\mathrm{M}^{1}$ is much the smallest of the three molars. Its length usually slightly exceeds the transverse width, but the length/width index ranges from 93 to 107. The apparent length is frequently reduced by wear of the metastyle and flaking away of the enamel on the anterior border.

The outline of the base of the tooth might be described as a quadrilateral with rounded apices. There is a bay, varying in depth, somewhat anterior to the middle of the buccal side. The posterior side is convex, reaching its greatest prominence near the mid-point. The anterior side is also convex, but it recedes lingually, so that the lingual side is much shorter than the buccal side. There is a slight bay in the lingual side, situated more posteriorly than the buccal bay. The anterior oblique width is approximately equal to the posterior oblique width (index, anterior/posterior width, 97-108).

[^0]

Fig. I. Upper cheek teeth. A. Schizotherium priscum, from specimens in the Paris Museum. B. Chalicotherium pilgrimi, M1 and M2, BMNH. Miri66. c. C. rusingense, holotype. D. C. grande, $\mathrm{P}^{4}-\mathrm{M}^{3}$, from cast, BMNH. M4082I. E. C. goldfussi, from cast of Nikolsburg specimen, BMNH. Mi2I54. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

There are three roots. The buccal roots correspond to the two lobes of the buccal outline ; in cross-section they are oval, with their long axes transverse to the tooth. The lingual root is extended in an anteroposterior direction, and is partly divided by grooves on its buccal and lingual surfaces into anterior and posterior moieties, corresponding to the lobes of the lingual outline. The buccal roots taper apically; their nearly perpendicular buccal surfaces are situated near the surface of the maxilla. In four specimens in which $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ is implanted in the bone their length ranges from 16.3 to 20 mm ., the anterior root being apparently slightly longer than the posterior. The lingual root is more frequently preserved in isolated teeth, in
which its length is $11 \cdot 3-14 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. It is stouter than the buccal roots and less tapering. It is inclined lingually, diverging from the buccal roots. The base of the tooth between the roots is flat, and in well-preserved specimens it is crossed by three inter-radicular crests which arise from the inner sides of the roots and meet in the centre of the base.

## Table I.

Measurements (mm.) of teeth of Chalicotherium rusingense, holotype.

|  | Length | Transverse | Oblique width |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $M^{3}$ | 26.3 |  | Anterior | Posterior |
| $M^{2}$ | 27.6 | 25.0 | $27^{\circ} 0$ | 23.1 e |
| $M^{1}$ | 20.5 | 25.0 | 24.6 | 24.8 |
| $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ | 13.0 | 19.3 | 19.0 | 19.5 |
| $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ | 12.3 | 17.8 |  |  |
| $\mathrm{P}^{2}$ | 10.0 | 14.2 |  |  |

The crown is dominated by the W-shaped ectoloph, formed from the paracone and metacone. These cusps are approximately equal in height. Their tips are placed near the mid-line of the crown, their lingual surfaces are nearly vertical, and their buccal surfaces are inclined at about $40^{\circ}$ to the plane of the base of the tooth. Both cusps are V-shaped in crown view, but the arms of the metacone are much more divergent than those of the paracone, as the posterior arm runs directly backwards (on little-worn teeth) to the mid-posterior prominence of the outline. A ridge runs down the buccal slope of the paracone, and a similar but fainter and shorter ridge is sometimes present near the tip of the metacone. The ectoloph is buttressed by the parastyle and mesostyle, which are situated on the two lobes of the buccal margin, and are almost as high as the paracone and metacone. Unworn specimens of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ show that the tips of the parastyle and mesostyle do not lie in the ectoloph, but are joined to it by transverse crests ; this is probably also true of $\mathrm{M}^{1}$, but sufficiently unworn specimens of this tooth are unknown. Seen from the buccal side, the mesostyle (and presumably also the parastyle, which has suffered damage on all the specimens of $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ ) thickens towards the base. In two of the three specimens of $\mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{I}}$ referred to the large form a swelling is present about half-way up the anterobuccal face of the mesostyle ; it is not present in the typical form. The buccal cingulum is very indistinct, least so externally to the metacone ; where it joins the posterior crest of the metacone a rudimentary metastyle is formed.

The ectoloph wears on its lingual surface and so becomes displaced towards the buccal side of the crown in worn specimens. The posterior crest of the metacone becomes rotated buccally and the angle between the arms of the metacone V is thus reduced. Tongues of exposed dentine extend to the tips of the parastyle and mesostyle, so that in very worn teeth the styles are hardly distinguishable from the ectoloph itself.

The protoloph and metaloph branch off from the anterior arms of the paracone and metacone respectively, and run obliquely backwards, parallel to the anterior
border of the tooth. Their anterior surfaces are nearly vertical, their posterior surfaces much less so. The protoloph is short, extending only to the protoconule which is placed close to the lingual side of the paracone. The protocone is situated above the anterior lobe of the lingual margin, and more posteriorly than the protoconule, from which it is separated by a valley. The protocone is subequal in height to the protoconule, and much lower than the paracone. It has the form of a cone, tilted lingually so that its lingual surface is nearly vertical, and developed into a ridge anteriorly. In four specimens a low but distinct crest arises on the lingual side of the protoconule, crosses the intervening valley and joins the anterior ridge of the protocone ; the crest is absent in five other specimens. The metaloph rises at its lingual end to form the hypocone, which is somewhat higher than the protocone and placed a little less lingually on the crown. There is no trace of a metaconule.

The anterior border of the crown is occupied by a broad cingulum, its edge formed by a sharp marginal crest which branches off from the ectoloph lingually to the parastyle. This crest rises in front of the protoconule ; farther lingually it falls rapidly and merges into the anterolingual side of the protocone. There is no distinct cingulum lingually to the protocone. A posterior marginal crest arises from the tip of the hypocone, enclosing with the metaloph and metacone a triangular basin (postfossette). In seven out of ten specimens this basin is interrupted by a small transverse crest that branches off the lingual side of the ectoloph. Owing to wear, details of the central basin cannot be determined.

Table II.
Dimensions of upper molars, C. rusingense.

|  | Typical form |  |  |  | Large form |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | N | m | s | Range (mm.) | Measurements (mm.) |  |
| Length | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \\ & 7 \\ & 5 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \cdot 7 \\ & 25 \cdot 5 \\ & 24.9 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.78 \\ & 1.30 \\ & 0.98 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \cdot 0-20 \cdot 8 \\ & 24 \cdot 4-27 \cdot 6 \\ & 24 \cdot 0-26 \cdot 3 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} 21 \cdot 7, & 22 \cdot 7 \\ 28 \cdot 9, & 29 \cdot 3 \\ 26 \cdot 2, & 26 \cdot 5 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <\cdot O_{1} \\ & <\cdot O_{2} \\ & >\cdot I \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{array}{cc} \text { Transverse } & \mathrm{M}^{\mathrm{I}} \\ \text { width } & \mathrm{M}^{2} \\ & \mathrm{M}^{3} \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 9 \\ & \text { IO } \\ & 6 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \cdot 1 \\ & 24 \cdot 7 \\ & 24^{\circ} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.82 \\ & 0.92 \\ & 1.02 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \cdot 0-20 \cdot 3 \\ & 23 \cdot 0-26 \cdot 5 \\ & 23 \cdot 3^{-25} \cdot 2 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 21 \cdot 7,22 \cdot 0,22 \cdot 4 \\ & 28 \cdot 5 \\ & 27 \cdot 0,27 \cdot 1 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <\cdot \mathrm{OI} \\ & <\cdot \mathrm{OI} \\ & <\cdot \mathrm{O} 2 \end{aligned}$ |
| Oblique width $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ (parastyleprotocone) | $\begin{aligned} & 7 \\ & 6 \\ & 5 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \cdot 7 \\ & 25 \cdot 8 \\ & 26 \cdot 2 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{O} .6 \mathrm{I} \\ & \mathrm{I} \cdot \mathrm{O}_{4} \\ & \mathrm{O} .57 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \cdot 8-20 \cdot 3 \\ & 24 \cdot 6-27 \cdot 2 \\ & 25 \cdot 6-27 \cdot 0 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{ll} 22 \cdot 5, & 23 \cdot 0 \\ 30 \cdot 8, & 31 \cdot 0 \\ 28 \cdot 6, & 30 \cdot 3 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <\cdot \text { OI } \\ & <\cdot \text { OI } \\ & <\cdot \text { OI } \end{aligned}$ |
| Oblique width $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ (mesostylehypocone) | $\begin{array}{r} 9 \\ \text { 10 } \\ 8 \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \cdot 8 \\ & 23 \cdot 9 \\ & 22 \cdot 1 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.8 \mathrm{I} \\ & \mathrm{I} \cdot 00 \\ & 0.6 \mathrm{I} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 18 \cdot 4-20 \cdot 9 \\ & 22 \cdot \mathrm{I}-25 \cdot 2 \\ & 20 \cdot 6-23 \cdot \mathrm{I} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2 I \cdot 4,2 I \cdot 9,22 \cdot 5 \\ & 27 \cdot 5 \\ & 23 \cdot 8 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <\cdot O I \\ & <\cdot O I \\ & <\cdot O 5 \end{aligned}$ |

The last column gives the probability (obtained by a t-test) that the means of the large form fall within the range of variation of the typical form.
$M^{2}$ is about $30 \%$ larger than $M^{1}$ in all dimensions. The posterior lobe of the lingual edge is less developed, the lingual bay being situated relatively more posteriorly. In correlation with this, the posterior moiety of the lingual root is proportionately smaller, and the hypocone, though not reduced in height, occupies a smaller proportion of the lingual border of the crown. The metacone is lower than the paracone when unworn, and it occupies a smaller proportion of the ectoloph. The index, anterior oblique width/posterior oblique width ranges from IOI to II3.

The variations observed in $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ are also present in $\mathrm{M}^{2}$. The bay in the buccal outline varies in depth. The swelling on the anterobuccal face of the mesostyle occurs in the only specimen of the large form in which this region is preserved, but it also occurs in a specimen of the typical form (R689.49) ; it is absent in four other specimens. The crest joining the protoconule to the protocone is present in seven specimens (including one of the large form) and absent in three (one of the large form) ; it is particularly strongly developed in MI4203 (the smallest specimen). The small transverse crest in the postfossette is present in six specimens and absent in four. In R689.49 the buccal roots are kidney-shaped in cross-section, owing to a groove on the internal side of each root ; this variation does not occur in six other specimens, and it was not observed in $\mathrm{M}^{1}$.

Five specimens of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ are practically unworn, revealing details of the central basin that could not be seen on $\mathrm{M}^{1}$. Between the protocone and the hypocone is a flattened area demarcated lingually by a marginal ridge. A small crest (crista) passes backwards from the paracone down the lingual side of the ectoloph to the deepest part of the central basin ; it is visible in all five specimens. In M I4203 another crest (crochet) passes down the anterior face of the metaloph to end in the central valley opposite the base of the crista. A trace of this is present in R 929.50 , which is more worn, but it is absent in four unworn specimens. A trace of the crochet appears to be present in two specimens of $M^{1}$ (R 496.50 and $R 12.48$ ).
$M^{3}$ is very nearly of the same length, width and height as $M^{2}$. It differs however in proportions. The posterior part of the crown is shorter in proportion to the anterior part, and also narrower (anterior/posterior oblique width index II5-I2I). The posterior buccal root is displaced lingually in relation to the anterior buccal root. The anterior of the two buccal roots is slightly longer than the posterior (visible in two specimens), which is of about the same length as the lingual root. The lobe of the outline that bears the hypocone is less prominent than on $\mathrm{M}^{2}$, and the bay in the lingual border is very slight, though the partial subdivision of the lingual root resembles that of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$. The protocone is placed relatively farther back on the crown, and the hypocone is a little nearer to the posterior edge and less lingual than in $\mathrm{M}^{2}$. The metacone is much lower than the paracone and slightly lower than the mesostyle. It is situated quite near to the posterior border of the crown, and its posterior arm is short.
$\mathrm{M}^{3}$ varies in the same ways as the other molars. The bay in the buccal edge varies in depth. The mesostyle never shows the basal swelling. The crest joining the protoconule to the protocone is absent in only one specimen and present in eight ; in M I4203 it is as strongly developed as on M2. The crista is present in six
specimens, definitely absent in one and probably absent in another specimen. The crochet is present in M. 14203 and probably two other specimens. The transverse crest in the postfossette is present in only one out of eight specimens.


Fig. 2. Upper molars of Chalicotherium rusingense. A. Left $M^{1}$ and $M^{2}, R 1382.51$. в Left M ${ }^{3}$ from Koru, BMNH. Mr4202. c. Right M1, R909.47. D. Left M ${ }^{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ from Koru, BMNH. Mi4203. E. Left M², worn, from site R 9r. F. Left M ${ }^{3}$, from site R 38. $\mathrm{G}-\mathrm{J}$. Left M${ }^{2}$, R 1382.5 r , buccal, lingual, posterior and anterior views. All $\times \mathrm{r}$.

Specimens MI 14202 and R 533.5I stand apart from the others in their greater breadth, and are considered to belong to the large form, even though they are not significantly greater in length. M 14202 fits with $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ of R 1782.50, which is also believed to belong to the large form (see below).

Comparisons. (Text-fig. I). Upper molars of the typical form of C. rusingense are only about $60 \%$ as large as those of typical C. grande from Sansan, but are similar in size to those of C. pilgrimi. Molars of Schizotherium priscum resemble in size those of the large form of C.rusingense; $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ of S. turgaicum (Borissiak 1921) is smaller than in C.rusingense ( $17.5 \times 17 \mathrm{~mm}$.).

The length/width indices of the upper molars of $C$.grande ( $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ Io3-109, $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ Io4-rir, $\mathrm{M}^{3} 93-\mathrm{IO}$ ) are not significantly different from those of C. rusingense ( $\mathrm{M}^{1} 93-107$, $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ 100-110, $\mathrm{M}^{3} 97-107$ ), and in C. pilgrimi $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ has an index of 106. In Schizotherium priscum $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ are typically a little narrower (indices IIO-II5), but there is less difference in $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ (indices of two specimens 98 and $\mathbf{1 1 2}$ ).

In C. rusingense $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ is larger in comparison with $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ than in C. grande, C. pilgrimi or $S$. priscum. Indices of comparable measurements on the two teeth show the following ranges : C. rusingense (3 specimens) 127-138, C. grande (3 specimens) 114-13I, C. pilgrimi (I specimen) II2-130, S. priscum (2 specimens) II3-127.
C.rusingense resembles C. grande in the displacement of the paracone and metacone from the buccal side of the crown. In C. pilgrimi and S. priscum these cusps are more buccal in position, and their buccal slopes are steeper. Moreover, in the two latter species the protoconule is placed about equidistant from the tips of the paracone and the protocone, whereas in C. rusingense and C. grande it is nearer the paracone.

In all known specimens of $S$. priscum the protoloph continues over the tip of the protoconule to the tip of the protocone, although between these cusps it dips to form a notch. The same condition is found in C. pilgrimi. In the other species of Chalicotherium the connection between the protoconule and the protocone is frequently broken, less often in C. rusingense than in C. grande. The connection is complete in a large specimen of C.grande from Cournon, but in six individuals from Sansan that part of the crest which passes up the anterior slope of the protocone is very weak or completely absent. In C. rusingense this part of the crest is retained, and it is the crest on the lingual slope of the protoconule that disappears when the connection is broken.

The crista is present on all molars of S. priscum that are sufficiently unworn, and it is also present on $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ of the holotype of $C$. pilgrimi. It occurs in the majority of specimens of $C$. rusingense and $C$. grande, but is sometimes absent. The crochet is much less common. It was not observed in S. priscum, C. pilgrimi or C. grande, but is present in a few specimens of C. rusingense, and Wehrli (1929) recorded its presence in one specimen of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ of $C$. goldfussi. The small rib on the lingual side of the ectoloph in the postfossette is present on all known molars of S. priscum ; in C.rusingense it is much more common on $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ than on $\mathrm{M}^{3}$; in $C$. salinum it occurs on the holotype $\mathrm{M}^{3}$. It is uncommon in C. grande where it was
found in only one specimen ( $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ ), and Wehrli (1929) noted it in a few specimens of $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ of $C$. goldfussi. It is not present on $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ or $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ of the holotype of C. pilgrimi.

The rib on the buccal slope of the paracone is present in all specimens of C. rusingense and S. priscum. It is also present in C. pilgrimi and C. salinum, but it is weaker and sometimes absent in C. grande and C. goldfussi. S. priscum differs from the species of Chalicotherium in possessing traces of a buccal cingulum between the parastyle and the mesostyle.

The upper molar roots of C.grande have not been described and are not visible in material that I have examined. The lingual root of C. goldfussi (one of Kaup's specimens, seen as a cast) and the three roots of $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ of Nestoritherium sinense are very much like C. rusingense. In two specimens of $\mathrm{M}^{3}$ of $S$. priscum at Paris a small supernumerary root is present, immediately to the lingual side of the anterobuccal root ; this was not observed in C. rusingense.

## Upper Premolars (Text-figs. IC, 3)

The three premolars are preserved together only in the holotype : in addition there are 3I isolated teeth of which only one ( RI 2.48 ) may definitely be identified as $\mathrm{P}^{2}$. As $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ and $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ resemble each other in morphology, and differ only in size and proportions, the overlap of their ranges of variation makes it impossible to identify every specimen with certainty. By plotting the lengths or widths on arithmetical probability paper (Harding 1949) the presence of two types of teeth in the collection, in nearly equal numbers, was confirmed, and the mean dimensions and standard deviations of $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ and $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ could be estimated. (Table III.)

In the holotype the total length of the premolar series is 38 mm ., or $5 \mathrm{I} \%$ of the length of the molar series.

Table III.
Upper molars of $C$. rusingense, inclusive of large form.


The width of $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ of the holotype is $92 \%$ of that of $\mathrm{M}^{1}$, but it is much shorter, its width/length ratio being $\mathrm{I} \cdot 37$. In the largest of the isolated premolars the width/length ratio reaches $1 \cdot 44 . \quad P^{3}$ of the holotype is a little shorter than $\mathrm{P}^{4}$
and much narrower : its width/length ratio is I•r6. The narrowest of the isolated specimens identified as $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ has a ratio of $\mathrm{I} \cdot \mathrm{I} 2$.

The buccal edge of $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ and $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ usually shows a slight bay. The posterior edge is evenly convex, reaching its most posterior point at the metastyle, to the buccal side of the middle line of the tooth. The lingual edge is evenly rounded, but the anterior buccal apex is the most acute of the three apices of the outline. The anterior edge is straighter than the posterior one, and recedes posterolingually, especially in teeth referred to $\mathrm{P}^{3}$. Owing to wear or breakage of the parastyle and metastyle the anterior and posterior borders of isolated teeth often appear nearly parallel.

There are normally two roots, one anterobuccal in position and circular in section, and the other a broad, flattened structure which extends along the posterior side of the tooth. The posterior root appears to represent the lingual and posterobuccal roots fused together. In two specimens these roots are separate, so that there are three equal roots. In two others, both the buccal roots have united with the lingual root to give a single root, $V$-shaped in cross-section, having a deep cleft on its buccal side.

The ectoloph, consisting of parastyle, paracone and metacone, occupies the buccal half of the crown. The parastyle is situated farther buccally than the paracone. more so on $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ than on $\mathrm{P}^{3}$. There is no mesostyle, and the buccal cingulum is vestigial or absent. The buccal surface of the ectoloph is steeper than on the molars ; a rib usually runs down it from the tip of the paracone, as on the molars. The metacone is lower than the paracone, the two cusps being separated by a notch worn by the hypoconid of the lower premolar. As completely unworn premolars have not been found, it is uncertain how far the apparent apex of the metacone is an artefact due to the cutting of the notch. In $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ of the holotype and in some isolated teeth the notch is weakly developed, and the metacone then appears as an angulation situated rather high up on the posterior side of the paracone. $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ possesses an important area of wear on the lingual side of the posterior part of the ectoloph, due to the anterior part of the trigonid of $\mathrm{P}_{4}$. The corresponding wear on $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ is small, and develops rather late in the life of the tooth. Accordingly, the metacone appears to stand farther forward on $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ than on $\mathrm{P}^{4}$.

In lightly worn teeth the protoloph is seen to join the ectoloph midway between the paracone and the parastyle, as in the molars, but in severely worn teeth the protoloph appears to arise directly from the paracone. The protocone of the molar is represented by the deuterocone of the premolar, a stout cusp, flattened on its buccal side and crested anteriorly. It is linked to the metacone by the metaloph, but is separated from the protoconule by a valley. As on the molars, this valley is frequently crossed by a crest that arises from the protoconule. This crest is distinct in the holotype and in eleven of the isolated teeth ; it is absent or very weak in 13 of the isolated teeth. There is no hypocone on $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ or $\mathrm{P}^{3}$. The anterior and posterior borders of the crown are occupied by prominent cingula, elevated near the middle line of the tooth. In M $14221\left(\mathrm{P}^{3}\right)$ the posterior cingulum continues as a ridge up the posterior surface of the deuterocone, but in other specimens this ridge is indistinct or absent, and the cingulum ends at the base of the deuterocone.

There is no lingual cingulum. In the least worn specimens a crista can be seen on the posterolingual side of the paracone. In two specimens a short ridge, probably corresponding to the crochet of the molar, extends into the central basin from the metaloph ; it is absent in five other specimens.

The two specimens of $\mathrm{P}^{2}$ are both rather severely worn. The crown is triangular, slightly longer than broad, with the lingual apex situated near the posterior end. In the holotype, $\mathrm{P}^{2}$ has $8 \mathrm{I} \%$ of the length of $\mathrm{P}^{3}$. The isolated specimen has two roots, arranged like those of typical specimens of $P^{3}$ and $P^{4}$. In both specimens the parastyle is low and weak, and the paracone is placed in the anterior half of the crown, but no metacone can be distinguished, perhaps due to wear. There is no buccal cingulum. The buccal slope of the paracone bears a vertical rib. The whole of the lingual face of the ectoloph posterior to the paracone is occupied by a large area of wear produced by $\mathrm{P}_{3}$. Owing to wear, details of the lingual part of the crown are obscure. The deuterocone seems to be placed rather far back on the crown, and to have taken part in the formation of a metaloph, like the hypocone of the molar. The protoloph is probably reduced or absent. A posterior cingulum is present.

Comparisons (Text-fig. I). In Schizotherium priscum the premolars are larger in comparison with the molars : the length of the premolar series is about $56 \%$ of that of the molar series, compared with $5 \mathrm{I} \%$ in C. rusingense. I have been unable to find a complete upper cheek dentition of typical C. grande, but in the type of C. grande rhodanicum (from Depéret's figure) the percentage is 45 , and in the Nikolsburg specimen of C. goldfussi figured by Abel (1922) it is 42 .


Fig. 3. Chalicotherium rusingense. A, basal view of $\mathrm{P}^{4}-\mathrm{M}^{3}$ to show arrangement of roots. $B$, right $P^{4}, R_{4} 8.5 \mathrm{I}$, crown view. C, the same, anterior view. D , left $\mathrm{P}^{3}$, from Koru, BMNH. Mi422I, crown view. E, F, right milk-molars, R 269.48 and R 65.50. G, H, abnormal premolar from Napak, crown view and anterior view. All $\times \mathrm{I}$, except $\mathrm{A} \times \frac{1}{2}$.

In S. priscum $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ is more equal to $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ (length index $\mathrm{P}^{3} / \mathrm{P}^{4}$ in two specimens of S. priscum 93 and 104 ; in the holotype of C. rusingense it is 89 ). In C. grande this index ranges from 87 (Crusafont \& Villalta 1942) to 85 (measured from the figure of Depéret 1892); in the Nikolsburg specimen of C. goldfussi it is 82 .

Differences in the pattern of $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ are slight. They concern mainly the protoloph which in Schizotherium continues to the tip of the deuterocone, whereas in Chalicotherium it tends to be interrupted, probably in correlation with the protoloph of the molars. In Schizotherium $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ is similar to $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ in pattern, differing only in being slightly narrower. In C. rusingense $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ is more definitely narrower, with a more oblique anterior edge, but its pattern still resembles that of $\mathrm{P}^{4}$. In C. grande, C. goldfussi and C. brevirostris there is a further distinction in that the protoloph of $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ is lower in relation to the ectoloph.

The alveoli in a maxilla of $C$. grande in Paris show that $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ and $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ each possessed a broad posterior root and a smaller anterobuccal root, as in C. rusingense. This is also true of Spanish specimens (Villalta \& Crusafont 1943).
$\mathrm{P}^{2}$ of Schizotherium priscum has a distinct protoloph, which branches from the ectoloph between the parastyle and the paracone and runs to the tip of the protocone as in $\mathrm{P}^{3}$. In C. grande (Crusafont \& Villalta 1943) the protoloph is weakly developed. C. rusingense seems to approach C. grande in this respect. The teeth of C. grande identified by Wegner (1913) as $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ and $\mathrm{P}^{2}$ are probably $\mathrm{P}^{2}$ and $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ respectively.
? Abnormal specimen of $P^{3}$. (Text-fig. 3G, н.)
An upper premolar from Napak measures $12 \times 14 \mathrm{~mm}$. (width/length ratio $\mathrm{I} \cdot \mathrm{I} 7$ ). It differs from upper premolars of $C$. rusingense in the presence of a groove on the posterolingual surface of the lingual root (which is fused with the posterobuccal root), associated with a nick in the posterolingual enamel border. The ectoloph shows the normal pattern of $\mathrm{P}^{3}$, but there are differences in the lingual part of the crown. The protoloph extends to the lingual side of the crown, and ends in a protoconule placed immediately anterior to the deuterocone. The metaloph forks : its anterior branch runs to the tip of the deuterocone, and the posterior branch interrupts the posterior cingulum, above the nick in the enamel border. The anterior cingulum ends lingually at the base of the protoconule.

A similar tooth from the Upper Miocene of Steinheim was referred by von Koenigswald (1932) to Metaschizotherium bavaricum, and another specimen with the same characters was described by Roger (1885). These European teeth are much larger and more transverse than the Napak specimen. It is possible that this represents an African species of Metaschizotherium (i.e. Phyllotillon), as I suggested in an earlier report (Butler 1962), but in the absence of other evidence for the existence of Phyllotillon in Africa it now seems to me preferable to interpret it as an abnormal P3 of Chalicotherium rusingense.

## Upper milk-molars. (Text-fig. 3E, F.)

Some isolated upper molariform teeth of small size are probably milk-molars. R 269.48 is tentatively identified as $\mathrm{Pd}^{4}$. It measures $16 \times 15.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. It is lightly worn. The bay in the buccal edge is situated more anteriorly than in $\mathrm{M}^{1}$; the
lingual root tapers markedly towards the tip and is nearly equal in length to the anterior buccal root. As on some specimens of $\mathrm{M}^{1}$, the protoconule is connected to the anterior side of the protocone by a low but distinct crest, and there is a small cross-crest in the postfossette.

R 65.50 is much smaller ( $\mathrm{I} 3.5 \times \mathrm{I} 4 \mathrm{~mm}$.) and is possibly $\mathrm{Pd}^{3}$. It is rather severely worn, and its unworn length would be greater. The roots are broken off, but the crown appears to be similar to R 269.48 .

A third specimen, R 631.47, measures $19 \times 18.5 \mathrm{~mm}$., approaching the lower limit of size of $M^{1}$. Its lingual root resembles that of $\mathrm{M}^{1}$, but the anterior border of the tooth is more oblique. This could be either an abnormally small $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ or an example of $\mathrm{Pd}^{4}$ of the large form. An incomplete specimen, R 697.5 I , is similar in size.

If the identification of these teeth is correct, it would follow that the milk-molars of C. rusingense are larger in comparison with $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ than in C. grande, where $\mathrm{Pd}^{4}$ is about $65 \%$ and $\mathrm{Pd}^{3}$ about $55 \%$ as long as $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ (Villalta \& Crusafont 1943). In Schizotherium priscum, to judge from the figure of Stehlin (1905), the milk-molars are less reduced than in C. grande and may have resembled those of C. rusingense in relative size.

In shape, however, the milk-molars of S. priscum are narrower, especially $\mathrm{Pd}^{3}$. Those of C. grande and C. wetzleri are more like C. rusingense. The small crest in the postfossette occurs in S. priscum, and also in the supposed $\mathrm{Pd}^{4}$ of $C$. grande rhodanicum (Depéret 1887).

Lower molars. (Text-figs. 4, 5 ; Tables IV, V, pp. 190, 191.)
The mandible $\mathrm{F}_{3} 608$ contains all the molars of both sides, in R 410.55 the right series is preserved in a mandible fragment, and R 1782.50 consists of a collection of separate cheek teeth from the right side which probably belong to one individual. $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ of $\mathrm{R}_{17} 82.50$ are considerably larger than those of the other two specimens, and fit upper molars referred to the large form. Seven other specimens show single teeth or parts of two adjacent teeth in mandible fragments, permitting identification. There are also six fairly complete isolated lower molars (including one specimen from Napak) and numerous fragments, consisting mostly of isolated trigonids or talonids.

The three complete sets show that $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ is only $73-77 \%$ as long as $\mathrm{M}_{2}$. It is however, proportionately wider : the trigonid width is $58-62 \%$ of the length of the tooth, compared with $53-55 \%$ in $M_{2}$. Only one mandible fragment ( R 520.48 ) is identified as containing $\mathrm{M}_{1}$; the tooth is broken anteriorly, but its talonid agrees closely with $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ of R 1782.50 , and it is therefore referred to the large form. There is also an isolated talonid of the typical form (R 68.49).

Six specimens contain $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ or $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ with a fragment or alveolus of an adjacent molar, permitting identification. These, together with the specimens showing the complete molar series, show that in the typical form $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ (4 specimens) ranges in length from $23.4-24 \cdot 6 \mathrm{~mm}$., and $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ ( 4 specimens) from $24 \cdot 4-26 \cdot 8 \mathrm{~mm}$. In F 3608 and R 410.55 $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ is about 3 mm . longer than $\mathrm{M}_{2} . \quad \mathrm{M}_{3}$ is longer in proportion to its width (across the trigonid) than $\mathrm{M}_{2}$. In R 1782.50 the difference in length is only 0.4 mm ., and it would appear that, as in the upper dentition, the last molar of the large form is proportionately shorter, though its width exceeds that of the typical form.


Fig. 4. Right lower molars of Chalicotherium. A, C. pilgrimi, $\mathrm{M}_{1}$, BMNH. Mi2167. в, C. rusingense, Rusinga, F 3608. C, C. grande, Paris specimen from Sansan (left teeth reversed). D, C. grande, lingual view of $\mathrm{M}_{2}$, BMNH. M40821. E, C. styriacum, lingual view of $\mathrm{M}_{2}$, from cast, BMNH. Mi2iI2. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

Some of the isolated molars, and all the incomplete teeth, cannot be definitely sorted into second and third molars. Recourse was therefore made to probability paper, by which means and standard deviations could be estimated, assuming equal numbers of $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ in the collection.

Altogether, 5 independent specimens containing lower molars are referred to the large form, as against 22 referred to the typical form.

The three molars are so much alike that a single description will suffice for all. There are two roots, flattened from front to back and inclined somewhat posteriorly. The posterior root is the stouter of the two, especially in $\mathrm{M}_{3}$, where its posterior surface is more rounded. The length of the roots on $M_{2}$ and $M_{3}$ is $20-24 \mathrm{~mm}$. A low inter-radicular crest is present on the base of the tooth.

Of the two V-shaped buccal cusps, the protoconid is a little lower than the hypoconid and occupies a smaller area on the crown. The anterior crest of the protoconid falls rapidly as it passes in a curve along the anterior border of the crown, and at its lingual end it becomes a cingulum ledge anterior to the base of the metaconid. There is no paraconid, though a notch may be worn in the crest to give the appearance of that cusp. A narrow cingulum on the anterior edge of the crown does not extend to the buccal side of the protoconid. The posterior arm of the protoconid remains nearly horizontal, crossing the crown to join the metaconid. The latter cusp is higher than the protoconid ; its base extends forward so as partly to close the trigonid basin. Closely applied to the posterior surface of the metaconid is the metastylid, the tip of which is lower than that of the metaconid. In three specimens the metastylid is represented only by a sharp posterior crest of the metaconid. The arms of the hypoconid diverge at a greater angle than those of the protoconid. The anterior arm ends between the metaconid and the metastylid, so that the latter cusp
projects backwards partly closing the talonid basin. The posterior arm of the hypoconid runs to the tip of the entoconid, a conical cusp, somewhat lower than the metaconid, and placed at the posterolingual corner of the crown. The trigonid basin opens lingually anteriorly to the base of the metaconid, and the trigonid basin opens between the metastylid and the entoconid. The posterior edge of the crown is occupied by a cingulum, somewhat variable in development. When best developed it rises towards the lingual side to form a vertical rib on the posterior face of the entoconid ; this rib represents the hypoconulid.


Fig. 5. A-e, Right $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ of Chalicotherium rusingense from Rusinga, $\times \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{A}$, crown view ; B , buccal view ; c, lingual view ; D, anterior view ; E, posterior view. F, lower premolars of C. rusingense, R $1782.50 \times \mathrm{I}$. G, $\mathrm{M}_{1}-\mathrm{P}_{3}$ of $C$. grande, $\mathrm{BMNH} . \mathrm{M}_{4} 082 \mathrm{I}$ and $\left(\mathrm{P}_{3}\right)$ a Paris specimen, $\times \frac{1}{2}$. $\mathrm{H}, \mathrm{M}_{1}-\mathrm{P}_{3}$ of $C$. goldfussi, from cast, BMNH. M2719, $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

The effect of wear is to expose a strip of dentine on the crests of the protoconid and the hypoconid. These cusps are thus reduced in height. The metaconid and entoconid however are worn mainly on their buccal sides, and their height is reduced more slowly.

Comparisons. The lower molars of C. rusingense are much smaller than those of C. grande or C. wetzleri, but a little larger than those of C. pilgrimi. Typical speci-
mens are similar in size to those of Schizotherium turgaicum and somewhat smaller than those of S. priscum.

In Schizotherium the hypoconulid of $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ is enlarged to form a posterior heel, probably the relic of a larger structure present in Eomoropinae. In C. rusingense, as in C. grande and other species of Chalicotherium, $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ resembles $\mathrm{M}_{2}$.

The metastylid is distinctly developed in Schizotherium, as well as in C. pilgrimi, C. wetzleri and (with a few exceptions) in C. rusingense. In C. grande and other late species it is more or less merged into the metaconid.

The width/length index of the lower molars is somewhat greater in C. grande ( $56-58$ in specimens of $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ from Sansan) than in C. rusingense ( $\mathrm{M}_{2}: 53-55$ ). Wehrli's (1939) measurements show that in C. goldfussi still broader molars can occur ( $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ : 55-62). Comparatively narrow molars (index of $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ below 55) occur in C. weetzleri, C. pilgrimi and species of Schizotherium.

## Molar Occlusal Relations. (Text-fig. 6.)

The functional inter-relations of the upper and lower molars were studied by examining the wear facets and by fitting teeth together.

In the centric position, in which the teeth are pressed together as closely as possible, the lower molar covers the lingual part of the upper molar, the inner borders of both teeth being in line. The inter-relations of the cusps in the centric position may be tabulated as follows :-

Hypoconid tip
Protoconid tip
Entoconid
Metaconid-metastylld
Paracone tip
Metacone tip
Protoconule
Protocone
Hypocone tip

Centre of central valley, between tips of paracone and metacone.
Cingulum anterior to the protoconule.
Groove between protocone and hypocone.
Space between protocone and the more anterior hypocone.
Buccal side of tooth, in valley separating protoconid and hypoconid.
Embrasure between two lower molars, partly filled by posterior cingulum.
Buccal side of metastylid.
Between metastylid and entoconid.
Against anterior arm of protoconid, in which it wears a notch.

During chewing, the crests of the protoconid and hypoconid slide up the lingual surface of the ectoloph. This can take place only when the lower jaw is displaced to the lateral side of the centric position. The movement was almost certainly ectal, starting when the lower teeth are placed so that the protoconid and hypoconid touch the parastyle and mesostyle respectively ; from this position the lower teeth move medially, upwards and slightly forwards to the centric position.

The facets of wear produced in chewing can without difficulty be homologized with those distinguished in other perissodactyls (Butler 1952).


Fig. 6. Molar occlusion of Chalicotherium rusingense. A, upper and lower molars superimposed in centric relation. B, $\mathbf{C}$, wear facets on the molars.

## Lower facet

1. Near the edge of the anterobuccal surface of the anterior crest of the protoconid.
2. Posterior surface of the protoconid-metaconid crest.
3. (a) Buccal surface of metaconid and metastylid, near the tip.
(b) Posterior face of metastylid, near the

## Upper facet

Lingual face of the posterior crest of the metacone.
Anterior face of paracone and protoconule.
Lingual face of protoconule.
Anterior crest of protocone. tip.
(These two facets are variable in development, and may be absent, especially 3 (b). When the protocone-protoconule crest is well developed the two facets may unite.)
4. (Metaconid-hypocone contact is absent.)
5. Edge of anterior crest of protoconid.
6. Anterior face of the buccal part of the hypoconid-metastylid crest, near the edge.
7. Posterior face of the hypoconid-entoconid crest.
8. A posterobuccal facet on the entoconid, involving the vertical rib.
9. Anterior surface of entoconid.

Edge of posterior crest of hypocone.
Posterolingual face of the paracone- mesostyle crest.

Anterior face of metacone and metaloph.
Anterolingual face of hypocone, near its tip.

Posterior crest of protocone.
(Contact slight and sometimes absent.)
10. Lingual surface of hypoconid.

Buccal surface of protocone.
Of these, $1,2,6$ and 7 from the main chewing surfaces. Contacts between the lingual cusps ( 3,8 and 9 ) are probably significant only as stops. When the lower jaw swings to the lingual side of the centric position, contacts 5 and io would ensure occlusal balance while the teeth on the opposite side of the mouth are in use.

## Lower Premolars. (Text-fig. 5.)

Lower premolars are poorly represented in the collection. The mandible F 3608 shows their roots in the left ramus; three isolated teeth ( R 1782.50) probably represent $\mathrm{P}_{2}-\mathrm{P}_{4}$ of a single individual, but they are in poor condition. Two more worn and isolated teeth ( R 738.50 and R 739.50 ) may be $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ and $\mathrm{P}_{4}$ of another individual ; they differ in some respects from R 1782.50 , and may not be correctly identified. Finally, there is a broken specimen of $\mathrm{P}_{2}\left(\mathrm{R}_{12.4}\right)$.

F 3608 shows that $P_{1}$ was absent. The total length of $P_{2}-P_{4}$ is 37 mm ., or $53 \%$ of the total length of the molars. All the premolars are two-rooted ; their length diminishes from $\mathrm{P}_{4}$ to $\mathrm{P}_{2}$.

In $\mathrm{R}_{17} 82.50, \mathrm{P}_{4}$ is shorter and proportionately broader than $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ ( $\mathrm{I} 5.5 \times$ 10 mm .). Its roots are flattened anteroposteriorly, but are less distinctly separated at the base than those of the molars. The crown-pattern differs from that of the molars in the following respects : the anterior arm of the protoconid runs in a rather more anterior direction to the middle of the anterior edge of the tooth, where it turns lingually, falling rapidly to form a cingulum that merges into the anterior base of the metaconid ; there is no metastylid; the hypoconid is much lower than the protoconid, and the crest which connects the hypoconid to the buccal surface of the metaconid is correspondingly low ; the entoconid (broken off) appears to have occupied a smaller proportion of the crown than in the molar, and the posterior cingulum is probably absent.

> Table IV.

Measurements of lower molars of two specimens of $C$. rusingense.

|  | F3608 |  |  | 1782.50 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Length | Trigonid Width | Talonid Width | Length | Trigonid Width | Talonid Width |
| $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ | $26 \cdot 8$ | 14.0 | $13 \cdot 6$ | $26 \cdot 8$ | 14.4 | 14.3 |
| $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ | $23 \cdot 8$ | 13.0 | $12 \cdot 7$ | $26 \cdot 4$ | 14.0 | 13.9 |
| $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ | $18 \cdot 3$ | 10.5 | II•5 | 19.8 | - | - |

$P_{3}$ of $R$ I782.50 is smaller in all dimensions than $\mathrm{P}_{4}(13 \times 9 \mathrm{~mm}$.), and is much less molariform. The anterior arm of the protoconid forms at the anterior end of the crown an angulation that is probably to be interpreted as a small paraconid. The metaconid does not rise to a distinct point, but is united with the protoconid to form a ridge that runs transversely to the crown and slightly backwards. There is no metastylid. The hypoconid is only about half as high as the protoconid, and, though the postero-lingual part of the crown is broken, the entoconid must have been very low and cingulum-like. On $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ ( $\mathrm{ro} \times 6.5 \mathrm{~mm}$.) the protoconid is the only well-developed cusp. An anterior ridge inclined lingually represents the paraconid, and a lingual
ridge the metaconid. The talonid is rudimentary. From the small hypoconid a ridge passes forward to merge with the posterobuccal surface of the metaconid ridge. There is a low, cingulum-like entoconid.

R 738.50 differs from $\mathrm{P}_{4}$ of R 1782.50 in its greater posterior breadth ( $\mathrm{I} 6 \times \mathrm{Im} .8$ mm .), due to the presence of an accessory cusp on the buccal side of the hypoconid (probably an abnormality). The tooth is very worn, and the presence of a metastylid cannot be affirmed, though it is probable. The entoconid, lower than the hypoconid, stands rather independently from the other cusps. There is no posterior cingulum. R 739.50 ( $13.3 \times 9 \mathrm{~mm}$.) is a specimen of $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ which agrees with R 738.50 in the presence of a small cingulum cusp buccal to the hypoconid, and it probably comes from the same individual. The entoconid is a small elevation on a cingulum at the posterolingual edge of the crown.

In R 12.48 , which is a specimen of $\mathrm{P}_{2}$, most of the trigonid has flaked away. The hypoconid is even more reduced than in R 工782.50, and the entoconid is represented only by a fragment of cingulum.

Comparisons. The premolar/molar index of C. rusingense (53) is close to those of C. wetzleri (54 in the Bollingen specimen) and Schizotherium priscum (54, from Osborn's figure, 1913) ; it is exceeded by S. cf. avitum (59, Teilhard de Chardin 1926). In some specimens of C. grande the index is reduced ( 47 in two specimens from Sansan, 44 in a Spanish specimen figured by Villalta \& Crusafont 1943).

In Schizotherium priscum (Osborn 1912) and S. turgaicum (Borissiak 1928) $\mathrm{P}_{4}$ possesses a weak metastylid, possibly present in one of the specimens of C.rusingense. $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ of $S$. priscum and $S$. cf. avitum is more equal to $\mathrm{P}_{4}$ than in C. rusingense, and more similar in pattern ; in $C$. grande $\mathrm{P}_{3}$ is smaller and simpler than $\mathrm{P}_{4}$, its metaconid being incompletely differentiated, as in C. rusingense. $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ of $C$. grande is more reduced than in $C$. rusingense ; the metaconid ridge is weak and the roots may fail to separate.

Thus reduction of the premolars has proceeded farther in $C$. rusingense than in Schizotherium, but not quite as far as in C. grande.

## Table V.

Dimensions of lower molars of $C$. rusingense, inclusive of large form.

|  |  | N | m | S | V |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{M}_{3}+\mathrm{M}_{2}$ | Length | 17 | 24.9 mm . | 1.75 | $7 \cdot 0$ |
|  | Trigonid width | 24 | 13.4 mm . | - 88 | $6 \cdot 6$ |
|  | Talonid width | 20 | 13.3 mm . | $\begin{gathered} 0.54 \\ \text { (range) } \end{gathered}$ | $4 \cdot 1$ |
| $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ | Length | 3 | 18.4 mm . | 17.2-I9.8 |  |
|  | Trigonid width | 2 | 10.6 mm . | 10.5-10.7 |  |
|  | Talonid width | 3 | 11.5 mm . | 10.7-12.4 |  |

Canines and Incisors. (Text-figs 7, 9.)
In the holotype a diastema of 26 mm . separates $\mathrm{P}^{2}$ from the upper canine. This is a small, curved tooth, measuring II.5 $\times 10.3 \mathrm{~mm}$. at the base of the crown, and


Fig. 7. Partial reconstruction of the face of Chalicotherium rusingense, based on the holotype. Side view and palatal view, $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

19 mm . from the tip to the posterior border of the alveolus. It is placed procumbently in the jaw, its root making an angle of $60^{\circ}$ to the line of the cheek teeth. The tip is blunt. There is a posterior crest near the tip, and a more rounded ridge on the buccal side (corresponding to the rib on the buccal slope of the paracone in the premolars and molars). The lingual surface is poorly preserved, but there was probably a short lingual crest near the tip. The anterior surface is evenly rounded.

Anterior to the canine the alveolar border is preserved for a length of 12 mm ., but it contains no teeth. The premaxilla is very slender, and though its tip has been broken off it is unlikely that any upper incisors were present.

In F 3608 and R 283.48 a lower canine root can be seen on either side. The lower canine must have been smaller than the upper canine, measuring in section about io $\times 7 \mathrm{~mm}$. It was procumbent, and was separated from $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ by diastema, 26 mm . long in F 3608 and 28 mm . in R 283.48. Three incisor alveoli can be seen on each side of F 3608 , immediately anterior to the canine. Their labial walls are broken away, but it is clear that the alveolus for $\mathrm{I}_{2}$ was the largest.

The incisor from Malembe, Congo Republic, described by Hooijer (1963) as an upper incisor of Macrotherium (?) spec., is not referable to C. rusingense. It is much too large to fit even into the largest lower incisor alveolus. The molar fragment
from Malembe is also much larger than in C. rusingense: its talonid width is 25 mm ., compared with a mean talonid width of 13.3 mm . for $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ of $C$. rusingense.

Comparisons. The anterior teeth of Schizotherium priscum are unknown. An isolated tooth tentatively identified by Teilhard de Chardin (1926) as the lower canine of $S$. cf. avitum measures $18 \times 9.5 \mathrm{~mm}$. ; this is larger in proportion to $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ than in C. rusingense. The juvenile mandible from St. Gérand-le-Puy described by Filhol (1879) appears to belong to Phyllotillon.

A juvenile mandible of C. grande from Sansan, figured by Filhol (1891) and now in Paris, shows alveoli for a canine and three incisors. These probably belong to the milk dentition, for gubernacular foramina are present in association with the first two incisors. $\mathrm{Id}_{2}$ is the largest of the incisors, and the canine is larger than any of the incisors. One of Lartet's specimens of "Anisodon magnum" contains the broken alveolus of a lower canine, separated from $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ by a diastema 29.5 mm . long. An isolated tooth lying shortly anterior to the lower jaw of the skeleton of C.grande described by Filhol (189I) may be an incisor (see Viret 1958, pl. 1). Nothing is known of the anterior upper dentition of C. grande. A lower milk canine appears to have been present in C. goldfussi, if $C$. baltavarense is correctly identified with that species (see p. 168). In C. brevirostris upper canine and incisors are absent, as in Nestoritherium sivalense.

Face and Palate. (Text-fig. 7 ; Table VI.)
Of the skull, only part of the face and palate are known, mainly from the holotype, but supplemented by fragments of maxilla.

Anterior to $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ the length of the face is $\mathrm{I} \cdot 23$ times the length of the upper molar series. The external narial opening extends back to above $\mathrm{P}^{3}$; it is flanked by a slender process of the small premaxilla. The zygomatic process arises above the posterior end of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$, and the anterior end of the orbit was probably situated above the anterior part of $\mathrm{M}^{3}$. The infraorbital foramen is preserved only in R 483.5 I , where it opens above $\mathrm{M}^{1}$. In other specimens the floor of the infraorbital canal can be traced back to the orbit. The canal and the foramen are situated fairly high on the face, about 25 mm . above the alveolar border of the cheek teeth. The maxillary sinus is represented by a small cavity between the infraorbital canal and the roots of the molars.

## Table VI.

Measurements of face and palate, C. rusingense, holotype.


The palate is transversely arched. Its width between the first molars must have been about 45 mm ., and it probably increased somewhat in width posteriorly. It is pierced by a foramen medially to $\mathrm{M}^{1}$. The posterior border of the palate has not been preserved.

Comparisons. The infraorbital foramen is above the anterior part of $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ in $C$. rusingense, C. grande, C. brevirostris and Schizotherium priscum, but in C. pilgrimi, probably due to the youth of the specimen, it is a little farther forward, above the posterior part of $\mathrm{P}^{4}$. The height of the foramen on the face is least in Schizotherium, most in C. grande : the index, distance of foramen from teeth/molar length, is 25 in S. priscum, 29 in C. pilgrimi, 32 in C. rusingense and 43 in C. grande.

In S. priscum and C. grande the zygoma arises above the posterior end of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$, as in C. rusingense, but in C. brevirostris it arises a little farther forward (mid $\mathrm{M}^{2}$ ) ; in juvenile specimens, such as the holotype of $C$. pilgrimi, it reaches the level of the anterior end of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$.

The length of the face is unknown in Schizotherium and in C. grande. It has almost certainly been shortened in C. brevirostris, for in this species it is much shorter than in C. rusingense. The anterior margin of the orbit in C. brevirostris is above the


Fig. 8. Mandibles of Chalicotherium. A, C. rusingense, from Rusinga, F 3608. B, C. wetzleri (holotype of Palaeotherium schinzii von Meyer) from a cast. c, C. grande, Paris specimen from Sansan. All $\times \frac{1}{4}$.
posterior part of $\mathrm{M}^{2}$. Unfortunately the known skulls of C. grande are so badly crushed that the exact position of the border of the orbit is uncertain. The distance between the orbit and the infraorbital foramen appears, however, to be greater in C. rusingense than in either C. grande or $C$. brevirostris.

## Mandible. (Text-figs. 8, 9 ; Table VII.)

F 3608 is the only specimen in which more than a fragment of the mandible is preserved. It consists of both horizontal rami, but the posterior part of the mandible has been broken off on both sides. R 283.48 shows the region of the symphysis.

The ramus is moderately deep, its depth increasing posteriorly. Below the molars the rounded lower border is very slightly concave in lateral view, falling and becoming sharper behind $\mathrm{M}_{3}$ to indicate the angular process (most of which is missing). The lateral surface below the teeth is nearly flat, but shows a weak longitudinal groove about 14 mm . above the lower border. This groove fades out below the premolars, where there is a slight convexity. The masseteric fossa is very flat and hardly noticeable. The coronoid process appears to be inclined at an angle of $45^{\circ}$ to the alveolar border. Internally, the ramus is moderately convex below the molars; about 15 mm . above the lower border there is a slight groove, presumably for the mylohyoid muscle. The mandibular foramen is low, its lower border being 22 mm . below the level of the alveolar border. The pterygoid fossa is very shallow.


Fig. 9. Chalicotherium rusingense, $F$ 3608, symphyseal part of mandible, in dorsal and ventral views, $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

The two rami converge at an angle of $30^{\circ}$. The symphysis extends back to the posterior end of $\mathrm{P}_{2}$. The symphyseal region is nearly in line with the horizontal ramus, but shows a slight upward tilt. Its vertical depth is less than that of the ramus, and there is a step in the alveolar border anterior to $\mathrm{P}_{2}$. The lower surface of the symphysis is evenly convex in a transverse direction, and its upper surface is concave to form a gutter. In the region of the diastema the alveolar border forms a sharp ridge, which turns laterally immediately behind the canine, where it overhangs the lateral surface of the jaw. The mental foramen is placed below the diastema, about midway between $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ and the canine. Above it is a small foramen, close to the alveolar border.

Comparisons. C. rusingense resembles C. grande and C.wetzleri in the general shape of the horizontal ramus of the mandible. The anterior part of the mandible of $C$. grande is known mainly from a juvenile specimen figured by Filhol ( $189 \mathrm{I}, \mathrm{pl} .44$ ). This differs from C. rusingense in the shorter symphysis and diastema. In an adult specimen (Filhol 1891 , pl. 45) the diastema is only $58 \%$ as long as the premolar series, compared with $80 \%$ in C. rusingense, and it is probable that the anterior part of the mandible, and therefore also the tip of the snout, was more abbreviated in C. grande than in C. rusingense. A further difference is that the mandibular foramen of $C$. grande is in line with the teeth, whereas in C. rusingense it is at a lower level.

The mandible of Schizotherium is very poorly known. From the figure of Osborn (I912) it may be seen that the alveolar border is stepped down anteriorly to $\mathrm{P}_{2}$ as in Chalicotherium. In Schizotherium sp. (Bohlin 1946) the symphysis ends a little anteriorly to $\mathrm{P}_{2}$, and the diastema was evidently longer than in C. rusingense. In this specimen the coronoid process appears to rise rather steeply, resembling Eomoropus (Osborn 1913). In S. cf. avitum (Teilhard de Chardin 1926) the diastema is longer than the premolar series, and the symphysis ends far anterior to $P_{2}$, as in Eomoropinae. Shortening of the anterior part of the mandible appears to be a trend of chalicotherian evolution, and it is probable that C. rusingense is more primitive than C. grande in this respect.

## Table VII.

Measurements of lower jaw, F3608.


Scaphoid. (Text-fig. io A-F.)
The only specimen of this bone is F 2077 , which belongs to the left side. It is a proximodistally flattened bone with a distal (or "centrale") process, situated towards the ulnar and dorsal ( $=$ anterior) sides. Its dimensions are : height 3 r mm ., dorsovolar length 31 mm ., radio-ulnar width 44.5 mm . In proximal view, the bone is transversely widened; most of the proximal surface is occupied by the facet for the radius. This facet is concave in a dorsovolar direction ; its ulnar edge meets the proximal margin of the lunate facet in an acute angle, and its margin is slightly
raised near the middle of the dorsal side and again at the ulnar end of the volar side. The radial third of the proximal surface of the scaphoid forms the radial process, and the middle of the volar side extends as a small volar process.


I


Fig. io. A-F, left scaphoid of Chalicotherium rusingense, F 2077. A, proximal view ; B, distal view ; C, radial view ; D, dorsal view ; E, volar view ; F, ulnar view. G-L, corresponding views of scaphoid of C. grande, Paris specimen from Sansan. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$. Labelling of facets: l.d., distal lunate ; l.p., proximal lunate; m, magnum ; $r$, radius ; $t$, trapezoid.

In dorsal view the scaphoid is wider than long. The dorsal surface is divided by a ridge which runs from the elevation in the dorsal margin of the radius facet to the distal process. This ridge divides a smooth, triangular proximo-ulnar area from the remainder, which is roughened. The roughening is very marked in a line from the radial process along the edge of the trapezoid facet, presumably for ligamentary attachment.

The trapezoid facet occupies a large area on the distal side of the bone, extending from the radial process to the radial side of the distal process. It is slightly saddleshaped, being weakly divided by a ridge which arises from the tip of the distal process, near the dorsal side, and crosses the facet to end below the volar process. Radially, the trapezoid facet does not reach the tip of the radial process, but it leaves a small area of smooth bone that might have articulated with a trapezium.

On the ulnar face of the scaphoid there is a proximal facet for the lunate, but no distal lunate facet, the ulnar surface of the distal process being rough. The magnum probably articulated with a small convex area at the tip of the distal process.

Comparisons. The scaphoid of Schizotherium is unknown. In comparison with C. grande, of which four examples were studied in Paris, the scaphoid of C. rusingense appears to be compressed in a proximodistal direction. Its distal process is shorter and less slender. In C. grande the proximal lunate facet is hardly indicated, but there is a large distal lunate facet on the ulnar side of the distal process ; in C. rusingense, on the other hand, the proximal lunate facet is well developed, but the distal facet is absent. In Phyllotillon betpakdalensis (Borissiak 1946) and Moropus elatus (Holland \& Peterson 1913) both facets are equally developed, and this is probably the primitive condition. The two species, Chalicotherium grande and C. rusingense, agree in the cylindrical concavity of the radius facet, which is saddle-shaped in Phyllotillon and flat in Moropus, and in the small and indistinct contact with the magnum, the distal process terminating in a rounded point, instead of being truncate as in the other genera.

## Third Metacarpal. (Text-fig. II A-E.)

F 2070 is the proximal end of a right metacarpal III. The transverse diameter of its head slightly exceeds the dorsovolar diameter ( $37.5 \times 35.5 \mathrm{~mm}$.) . The proximal surface is crossed by two dorsovolar keels, which demarcate the rectangular facet for the magnum. The ulnar keel is much the higher of the two. On its ulnar side is the unciform facet, and the radial part of the proximal surface is occupied by a facet for metacarpal II. The unciform facet extends onto the proximal surface of the prominent dorso-ulnar process, which overhangs a cavity on the ulnar side of the head of the metacarpal for articulation with metacarpal IV.

The facet for metacarpal II is triangular, tapering in a volar direction. It is convex in a dorsovolar direction ; its volar part is approximately horizontal and its dorsal part nearly vertical. The dorsoulnar part of the facet faces radially, extending onto the radial side of the keel that divides it from the magnum facet. The metacarpal facet overhangs the radial side of the bone. The magnum facet is also convex in a dorsovolar direction, but its dorsal part does not reach so far distally as


Fig. if. A-E, right third metacarpal of Chalicotherium rusingense, F 2070. A, dorsal view ; B, volar view ; C, ulnar view ; D, radial view ; E, proximal view. F-J, corresponding views of C. grande, Paris specimen from Sansan. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
the metacarpal facet, and it is bounded dorsally by a ridge. Transversely the magnum facet is concave, extending up its marginal keels. In the unciform facet, a dorsal part, which is concave, may be distinguished from a volar part, which faces in an ulnar direction. The dorsal part is situated on the dorso-ulnar process. A single facet for metacarpal IV occupies the proximal and radial sides of a pit on the ulnar side of the head ; its dorsal part faces in a distal and volar direction, and its volar part in an ulnar and somewhat distal direction.

The shaft is approximately quadilateral in section immediately below the head, but at the broken end, 67 mm . from the most proximal part of the head, the section is oval, somewhat flattened in a radio-ulnar direction. The surface of the bone near the head shows areas of roughening : on the dorsal surface of the dorso-ulnar process ; on the dorsal surface below the facet for metacarpal II, extending about 25 mm . distally ; on the radial side extending 18 mm . below the most distal part of the facet for metacarpal II ; on the volar side below the magnum facet, where the roughening forms a distinct prominence. The surface of the bone on the ulnar side is badly preserved.

Comparisons. The third metacarpal of Schizotherium priscum was figured by Filhol (1893) and described by Holland \& Peterson (1913). A similar metacarpal from Mongolia, referred to Schizotherium sp., was figured by Colbert (1935). In both of these, the head of the metacarpal is smaller than in C. rusingense (cir. $25.5 \times$ 27 mm . in Colbert's specimen). The radio-ulnar width of the head is less than the dorsovolar diameter, whereas in C. rusingense, and in C. grande, it is greater. The magnum facet occupies a larger proportion of the proximal end. The articulation with metacarpal II consists of two parts, a dorsal part, where the radial apophysis of metacarpal II projects over the proximodorsal surface of metacarpal III (as in Moropus), and a proximal part, which is narrower than in C. rusingense and is not separated from the magnum facet by a crest. The unciform facet is more steeply inclined and confined to the dorsal half of the bone (again as in Moropus). Colbert's specimen also resembles Moropus in bearing two facets for metacarpal IV.

In $C$. grande there is much more resemblance to C. rusingense. The differences noted are as follows : it is about one-third larger ; the keel separating the magnum facet from the facet for metacarpal II is weak or absent ; the magnum facet is less concave in a radio-ulnar direction. In other respects C. grande and C. rusingense resemble each other and differ from Schizotherium : the proportions of the head : the shape of the articulation for metacarpal II ; the extension of the unciform facet to the volar side of the head, and its more horizontal inclination ; the union of the facets for metacarpal IV.

## Fourth metacarpal. (Text-fig. I2 A-E.)

There are two examples of the proximal end of metacarpal IV. The larger of the two, from site R Io6, fits against the third metacarpal described above. It measures 36.5 mm . in dorsovolar length and 30 mm . in width. The other specimen ( $\mathrm{R}_{2} 78.55$ ) is much smaller, $(26.5 \times 18.5 \mathrm{~mm}$.) and probably juvenile.

In proximal view the larger specimen has the form of a triangle, flattened in a radio-ulnar direction. The most acute apex of the triangle is formed by the dorsal apophysis, which supports the dorsal part of an elongated facet for metacarpal III. The volar part of this facet is nearly vertical and faces radially. Most of the proximal surface is occupied by the unciform facet, which is triangular and nearly flat, but with its ulnar border somewhat elevated. It is separated from the volar part of the metacarpal facet by a blunt ridge, which however does not extend to the dorsal side. The head bears a small, truncated ulnar process, the surface of which is somewhat smoothed, perhaps representing a contact with a fifth metacarpal. Like metacarpal III, the surface immmediately distal to the head is very rugose, especially in a line from the dorsal apophysis to the ulnar process, and over an area extending 40 mm . down the volar surface.

In the juvenile specimen the dorsal apophysis is more weakly developed, and there is less rugosity. No facet for a fifth metacarpal can be distinguished.

Comparisons. Metacarpal IV of Schizotherium priscum has been figured by Filhol (I893), and that of S. turgaicum by Borissiak (1921) and Belyaeva (1954). In these, the head is less developed in a dorsovolar direction, owing to the absence of the dorsal apophysis. The facet for metacarpal III resembles that of C. rusingense, but faces more laterally, the uncinate facet occupying almost the whole of the proximal surface of the bone. There is a facet for metacarpal $V$ on the ulnar side of the head.
In C. grande the dorsal apophysis is developed as in C. rusingense. The dorsal and volar parts of the facet for metacarpal III are not so clearly differentiated, and the ridge demarcating the unciform facet extends right across the head to the dorsal surface. Metacarpal V is absent, and the ulnar process is more prominent and less truncated than in C. rusingense.

## Sesamoid.

F2079 is tentatively identified as a sesamoid of the manus of C. rusingense. It is a curved, flattened bone, trapezoidal in volar view. Its medial edge is straight, and bears a facet for articulation with the metacarpal keel. Its dorsal side is largely occupied by the cylindrically concave part of the joint surface. The lateral edge of its volar surface is raised to a ridge, forming the margin of the groove through which passes the main flexor tendon of the digit. The greatest length of the bone is 38 mm ., the greatest width 19 mm .

Comparison. Although the sesamoids of chalicothere feet must have been comparatively large, they have been described only in the case of Moropus elatus (Holland \& Peterson 1913). These differ from the specimen referred to C. rusingense in possessing a volar process for ligamentary attachment near the distal end, and in the frequent presence of a facet by which one sesamoid articulates with its partner.

Astragalus. (Text-fig. I3.)
The only example of this bone is MFWI208.55. It is not quite complete, part of the distal surface having been broken away.


Fig. 12. A-E, right fourth metacarpal of Chalicotherium rusingense, from site R ro6. A, dorsal view ; $B$, volar view ; $C$, ulnar view ; $D$, radial view ; E, proximal view. $\mathrm{F}-\mathrm{J}$, corresponding views of $C$. grande, Paris specimen from Sansan. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

In dorsal (=anterior) view the astragalus is much broader than high : its transverse diameter is 67 mm . and its height on the tibial side is 35.5 mm . The trochlea is correspondingly reduced in height, with the keels only moderately developed. Each keel subtends an angle of about $120^{\circ}$, but the fibular keel faces less proximally than the tibial keel ; in dorsal view it reaches farther proximally and distally. The neck of the astragalus, distally to the trochlea, is very short (about 5 mm . high).

In volar (=posterior) view may be seen a large, slightly concave, ectal facet on the fibular side, separated by a groove from the small, rounded, slightly convex sustentacular facet on the tibial side. The ectal facet extends more than half-way across the astragalus. Proximally it meets the trochlea in an acute edge, and distally on the fibular side it meets the small, flat distal calcaneal facet in a blunt angle. The sustentacular facet is separated proximally from the tibial part of the trochlea by a groove that leads to the astragalar foramina.

In distal view the fibular half of the astragalus is seen to be much narrower than the tibial half : the dorsovolar diameter at the fibular keel is 24 mm ., and at the tibial keel it is 43 mm . Most of the distal surface is occupied by the navicular facet, which extends from the tibial border more than half-way across the bone. It is divided by a rounded convexity into two slightly concave areas, the larger one being dorsal, and the smaller one tibial and volar. Owing to breakage the presence of a cuboid facet cannot be determined ; it could not have been more than of limited extent.


Fig. 13. Left astragali of Chalicotherium. Left, C. rusingense, MFW 1208.55, anterior (dorsal), posterior and distal views. Centre, corresponding views of C. grande, Paris specimen from Sansan. Right, corresponding views of C. goldfussi, from Pikermi, BMNH. Mir35i. All $\times \frac{1}{3}$.
Key: $c$, cuboid facet ; $e$, ectal facet ; $n$, navicular facet ; $s$, sustentacular facet.

The tibial surface of the astragalus is much roughened, and near the trochlea it is marked by a deep pit for a ligament.

Comparisons. The astragalus of Schizotherium turgaicum (Borissiak 1946, Belyaeva 1954) is proportionately much higher than in C. rusingense, but the neck is equally short, the greater height being shown in the trochlea. The trochlear keels are more acute, and, on the volar side, the sustentacular and ectal facets are more elongated proximo-distally. In distal view the astragali of the two species are more similar, except that in C. rusingense the fibular part of the bone is narrower relatively to the tibial part. There is no cuboid facet in S. turgaicum.

In C. grande the astragalus is lower than in C. rusingense, and has blunter trochlear keels. The ectal facet is deeper, and does not extend so far towards the tibial side (see Wegner 1913). In distal view the fibular part of the astragalus is narrowed to the same extent as in C. rusingense. A cuboid contact is present in C. grande in the form of a strip along the posterior edge of the navicular facet (figured by Holland \& Peterson 1913). The navicular facet is tilted towards the tibial side to a more marked degree in C. grande than in C. rusingense, and, probably associated with this, the tibial height of the astragalus is only $75 \%$ of the fibular height in C. grande, compared with $87 \%$ in C. rusingense.

## Second Metatarsal. (Text-fig. I4 ; Table VIII.)

There are three examples of this bone. The best preserved is MFWI213.55. F2071, which is somewhat weathered, is similar but a little longer. Sgr82.48 is a small, juvenile specimen.

The proximal end is triangular in outline, with dorsal and volar processes, situated towards the fibular side, and a tibial process. Most of the proximal surface is occupied by the facet for the mesocuneiform, slightly concave in the tibio-fibular direction. On the fibular side of this is the facet for the ectocuneiform, which in MFWI213.55 is differentiated into dorsal and volar portions. The dorsal portion faces in a fibular direction, and is separated from the mesocuneiform facet by a sharp crest ; the volar portion faces proximally, and is separated from the mesocuneiform facet only by a low crest. In F207I the dorsal portion is missing, perhaps due to weathering. There is no entocuneiform facet. On the fibular side, below the ectocuneiform facet, is an overhung facet for metatarsal III ; this apparently does not extend to the extreme volar side of the bone. Below it again is a roughening of the surface for ligamentary attachment. The dorsal process projects beyond the fibular side of the bone and extends for a short distance down the shaft.

The middle of the shaft is oval in section, somewhat flattened in a dorsovolar direction. The bone as a whole is short in comparison to its width : the total length is $2.0-2 \cdot \mathrm{I}$ times the maximum width of the distal end.

The distal articulating surface is placed obliquely to the long axis, its tibial side being more proximal than its fibular side. In F207I its dorsal border is separated from the shaft by a shallow groove, but this is not present in MFWi213.55. Dorsally, the articulating surface projects beyond the level of the shaft, and forms a smoothly convex area for the phalanx. The volar part of the articulation, for

C.rusingense

C.grande


Fig. 14. Right second metatarsals of Chalicothevium. C. rusingense, MFW 1213.55, in dorsal, ulnar, volar, radial, proximal and distal views. C. pilgrimi, BMNH. Mi 2168, corresponding views. C. grande, Paris specimen from Sansan, corresponding views. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
the sesamoids, is divided by a median keel which starts at the most distal end of the bone. The groove on the tibial side of this keel is more deeply cut than the groove on the fibular side. Proximally to the distal articulation, apophyses for ligaments are developed on the lateral sides of the bone ; below each, but most marked on the fibular side, is a pit.

Comparisons. In Schizotherium priscum (Filhol 1893) and S. turgaicum (Borissiak 1921) the second metatarsal is much more elongated (length/distal width 4.0 and $4 \cdot 3$ respectively, cf. $2 \cdot 0-2 \cdot \mathrm{I}$ in C. rusingense). In C. pilgrimi (BM.12168) it is shortened to the same degree as in C. rusingense ( $2 \cdot \mathrm{I}$ ) but in C. grande it is somewhat shorter ( $1 \cdot 7-\mathrm{I} \cdot 9$ ).

In proximal view the head is more compressed in a tibio-fibular direction in Schizotherium than in Chalicotherium. C. pilgrimi is very much like C. rusingense in the shape of the proximal end, but in C. grande the head is trapezoidal rather than triangular, owing to broadening on the volar side.

In S. turgaicum the ectocuneiform facet is divided into two. In the species of Chalicotherium it is single, but C. rusingense and C. pilgrimi show more clearly than C. grande a functional division between a more vertical dorsal part and a more proximal volar part. In C. grande the crest separating the ectocuneiform and mesocuneiform facets is blunt throughout its length, whereas in C. rusingense and C. pilgrimi its dorsal half is acute.

## Table VIII.

Measurements (mm.) of metatarsals of C. rusingense.

|  | Second |  |  | Third |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { MFW } \\ 1213.55 \end{gathered}$ | $\mathrm{F} 207 \mathrm{I}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Sgr. } \\ & 84 \cdot 48 \end{aligned}$ | F2076 | R30 | R648.47 | R9I |
| Width of head | 27 | 26 | 21.5 | 25 | 23.5 | 17.5 | 23 |
| Dorso-volar, head | 28 | 24.5 | 20 | 28 | $30 \cdot 5$ | 24 | 25 |
| Minimum width, shaft | $20 \cdot 5$ | $23 \cdot 5$ | 15.5 | 23 | $22 \cdot 5$ | 15.5 | 19 |
| Distal width, across articulation. | 28 | 29 | 21 | $26 \cdot 5$ | 27 | 21.5 | 24 |
| Length | 58 | $58 \cdot 5$ | 50 | 69 | 62.5 | 58 | $57 \cdot 5$ |

The overhung facet for metatarsal III is double in S. turgaicum, single in the three species of Chalicotherium.

At the middle of its length the shaft is more nearly circular in cross-section in Schizotherium than in Chalicotherium where it is somewhat broadened. In C. grande the shaft is broader in comparison with the distal width than in C. rusingense or C. pilgrimi.

Third metatarsal. (Text-fig. 15; Table VIII.)
Four specimens are identified as this bone, although they differ somewhat in size and proportions. The longest specimen is F 2076 (left). Another specimen
(left) from R30 is of the same width but slightly shorter. R648.47 (left) and a specimen from R9I (right) are smaller and more slender, and may be juvenile.
The ratio of length/distal width ranges from $2 \cdot 2$ to $2 \cdot 6$, and it is probable that metatarsal III was slightly longer than metatarsal II of the same individual, though of similar width. There is some variation in the shape of the section of the middle of the shaft : thus in F2076 the transverse diameter slightly exceeds the dorsovolar diameter, but in R648.47 the dorsovolar diameter is the greater, while the specimen from R30 is nearly circular in section.

The proximal surface is roughly triangular or trapezoidal. It is inclined distally towards the dorso-fibular apex, and is occupied by a very slightly convex facet for the ectocuneiform. There is no distinct facet for the cuboid. The fibular edge, which is nearly perpendicular to the straight dorsal edge, is slightly concave in F2076, straight in the other specimens. The third edge, from the tibio-dorsal apex to the fibulovolar apex, is convex. In all specimens the dorsovolar diameter of the head is greater than the transverse diameter, but less markedly so in the specimen from R9I than in the others.


Fig. 15. Right third metatarsals of Chalicotherium. Above, C. rusingense, F 2076, in dorsal, ulnar, proximal and distal views. Below, C. grande, Paris specimen from Sansan, corresponding views. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

On the most proximal part of the fibular surface of the metatarsal are two facets for articulation with metatarsal IV, slightly overhung by the fibular border of the proximal surface. Each facet occupies the proximal part of a pit in the fibular surface. The more dorsal facet is the larger ; it is somewhat concave, and faces slightly in a volar direction. The volar facet is smaller and flatter.

The distal end is tilted towards the tibial side to a greater extent than in metatarsal II. The fibular ligamentary apophysis is much better developed than its tibial counterpart, whereas on metatarsal II they are more equal. The dorsovolar diameter of the distal end is relatively greater than in metatarsal II, exceeding the transverse diameter. The sesamoid articulation is accordingly more extensive than the phalangeal articulation. The fibular sesamoid groove is more deeply incised than on metatarsal II, though it remains shallower than the tibial groove.

Comparisons. This metatarsal is much shorter in comparison with its width than in Schizotherium priscum (Filhol 1893) and S. turgaicum (Borissiak 1921). It is much more like $C$. grande, though only the specimen from R30 agrees with that species in proportions, the other specimens being relatively longer.

In Schizotherium metatarsal II is much more slender than metatarsal III, but in C. grande the two metatarsals are of equal width, and this appears to be so also in C. rusingense.
C. rusingense resembles Schizotherium in the proportions of the proximal end of the bone ; in C. grande it is rather broader. In C. grande there is a distinct cuboid facet, absent in C. rusingense and in Schizotherium. C. rusingense also agrees with Schizotherium in the possession of two distinct facets for metatarsal IV ; in C.grande the volar facet is apparently absent.

The distal ends of metatarsals II and III of $C$. grande differ in the same ways as those of $C$. rusingense, but the differences are less marked.

## Basal phalanges. (Table IX.)

Of 43 basal phalanges, 23 are referred to the manus, because of their larger size and their resemblance to phalanges of the manus of C. grande. The 23 specimens fall into three groups, regarded as representing digits II, III and IV.

Digit II of manus. (Text-fig. I6A). This type of phalanx is so identified from its resemblance to the basal phalanx of B.M. M8638, a complete digit of C. grande, including the metacarpal. It is broader proximally than distally. The proximal border forms two lobes of which the radial is the more prominent. The facet for the metacarpal occupies the proximal half of the dorsal surface of the bone. It is concave, and faces very slightly proximally and radially. Its ulnar border is marked by a prominent crest which reaches its greatest height at the disto-ulnar extremity of the facet. Its radial border is lower, broadening out distally to form a crescentshaped flattened area that possibly marks the insertion of an extensor tendon. Distally to the metacarpal facet the phalanx narrows to a waist, especially conspicuous in lateral view. On the volar side there is a broad longitudinal concavity between two marginal ridges. Each of these ridges is developed into a proximal prominence, and about half-way along the bone there is a second, smaller prominence

Table IX.
Measurements (mm.) of some phalanges, C. rusingense.


Ungual phalanges
Ri36c. $49 \quad$ Ri34.49
Ri60. 49
R922.47

| Maximum length | . | . | . | 96 | - | - | 64 e |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Length of base | . | . | . | 66 | 60 | 48 | 4 I |
| Height of articulation | . | . | . | 30 | 26 e | 23 | 21 |
| Height at cleft | . | . | . | 44 | 43 | 40 | 32 |
| Width of base | . | . | 25 | 20.5 | 25 | 20 |  |
| Width of articulation | . | . | . | 25.5 | 18 | 19 | 16 |

(intermediate volar tubercle). Distally, the marginal ridges merge into the keels that form the edges of the articulation for the middle phalanx. This articulation, which occupies the distovolar part of the bone, is in principle a trochlea, with median groove and lateral keels. However, it usually shows an incomplete subdivision into a distal part and a volar part. The bottom of the groove in passing from one part to the other forms a slight but distinct angulation ; the lateral keels diverge in the distal part, but are parallel in the volar part ; the joint surfaces on the sides of the groove, instead of being evenly curved, are incompletely differentiated into two areas corresponding to the two parts of the groove and keels. The articulation is not symmetrically placed in relation to the phalanx as a whole, but is arranged


Fig. i6. Basal phalanges. A-c, Chalicotherium rusingense. A, R 450.47 (left manus), dorsal, radial and distal views. B, unnumbered specimen from site Rs 9 ( right manus, reversed), dorsal, radial and distal views. c, unnumbered specimen from site Rs 30 (left manus), dorsal and radial views, and F 2075 (right manus, reversed), distal view. D, Schizotherium priscum, three phalanges from Paris Museum, dorsal and lateral views. E, C. grande, three types of basal phalanx of the manus, Paris Museum, in dorsal view. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
so that its most dorsal end is displaced towards the ulnar side and its volar end towards the radial side. The lateral surfaces of the phalanx are marked by proximal and distal roughenings for ligaments. The ulnar surface is deeper and flatter than the radial surface, which is more convex and less distinctly marked off from the dorsal surface.

There are 8 examples of this bone, ranging in ulnar length from 44.3 to 56.5 mm . (mean 50.4 ), in radial length from 44.3 to 59 mm . (mean 52.4 ).

Digit III of manus. (Text-fig. I6B.) This phalanx averages rather longer and narrower than that of digit II. The metacarpal facet occupies less than half the dorsal surface ; the shaft distal to this facet is relatively longer and narrower, and the distal trochlea is also relatively narrower. The flattened area on the radial edge of the metacarpal facet is less conspicuous. The lobes of the proximal end are more equal, the ulnar lobe exceeding the radial lobe slightly. The intermediate volar tubercles are distal to the metacarpal facet.

Seven complete specimens range in ulnar length from 50.2 to 60.2 mm . (mean $57 \cdot 3$ ). There is also a larger specimen of which the ulnar length must have been about 68 mm .

This phalanx is identified as belonging to the third digit because it is the longest and most symmetrical of the three types.

Digit IV of manus. (Text-fig. I6c.) In this type the ulnar lobe of the proximal border is much more prominent than the radial lobe. It is shorter than the phalanx of digit III, and resembles that of digit II in length. The metacarpal facet occupies rather more than half the dorsal length, and the intermediate volar tubercles are placed opposite the distal part of the facet, as in digit II. This phalanx differs from that of digit II in being more stoutly constructed, in lacking a waist, and in the lack of a conspicuous area of flattening on the radial maıgin of the metacarpal facet, as well as in the different shape of the proximal border.

There are 7 examples of this bone, ranging in ulnar length from 46.5 to 65 mm . (mean 55.5 ).

Pes. (Text-fig. I7A-C.) The basal phalanges of the pes are smaller than those of the manus (ulnar length of io complete specimens, $37-44.3 \mathrm{~mm}$., mean $40 \cdot 8$ ). The metatarsal facet faces more dorsally, and always occupies more than half of the dorsal surface. Intermediate volar tubercles are usually absent. The phalanges of the three digits of the pes appear to differ in much the same way as those of the manus, but to a smaller degree.

Two specimens, one from Rusinga (unnumbered) and one from Songhor (Sgr 32.47), though small (ulnar length $35 \cdot 7$ and $35 \cdot 3 \mathrm{~mm}$. respectively) are more slender than specimens referred to the pes. They are probably juvenile specimens from the manus.

Comparisons. The basal phalanges of the manus of C. grande are from one-third to one-half larger than those of $C$. rusingense. There are some differences in proportions : the proximal width is relatively greater, and the metacarpal facet occupies a greater proportion of the dorsal surface than in most specimens of


Fig. 17. Basal phalanges of the pes. A-c, Chalicotherium rusingense. A, R 452.47. B, R 281.51. C, Rusinga, no data. D, two phalanges of C. grande, Paris Museum. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
C. rusingense. The intermediate volar tubercles are very weakly developed. As in C. rusingense, phalanges of the pes are much smaller than those of the manus.

The phalanges of the manus of $C$. grande fall into three groups, presumably corresponding to the three digits, as in C. rusingense. (Text-fig. I6E.) The differences between them are not so great, however ; for example, phalanges referred to digit III are less obviously elongated, in comparison with those of digits II and IV, than in C. rusingense. Unfortunately, the articulated left manus described and figured by Gervais (1877) and by Holland \& Peterson (1913) cannot be used to identify the phalanges of the different digits, for the digits appear to have been reconstituted artificially : the basal phalanx of digit IV belongs more probably to digit III of the right side ; that of digit II seems to belong to digit IV, and that of digit III to digit II.

Two basal phalanges may tentatively be referred to C. pilgrimi : B.M. 12170 and 12172 (Forster-Cooper 1920). From its symmetry, 12172 may be interpreted as from digit III of the manus. It is a little shorter than most specimens of C. rusingense of this type, agreeing in length more with those of digits II and IV. It is broader than any of the phalanges of $C$. rusingense. Its metacarpal facet occupies rather more than half of the dorsal surface, as in C. grande. Intermediate volar tubercles are well-developed. 12170 appears to belong to digit II, as the metacarpal facet extends more proximally on the radial side than on the ulnar side. It is somewhat larger than in C. rusingense, and its metacarpal facet is more extensive.

A phalanx of the pes, referred to C. wetzleri by Viret (1929) is very similar in size and shape to specimens of $C$. rusingense. It has an intermediate volar tubercle, like some of these.

Several basal phalanges of Schizotherium turgaicum are figured by Belyaeva ( 1953, pl. 3), and five specimens of S. priscum were examined in Paris (Text-fig. 16D). In each species the phalanges show a variety of size and form, but they cannot be allocated to the different digits on the same basis as in Chalicotherium. Filhol's (1893) drawings of the metapodials of $S$. priscum indicate that the phalanges of the pes are probably larger than those of the manus, at least on digits III and IV, as in Grangeria (Colbert 1934) : the largest phalanx in Paris is about as wide as the distal end of the third metatarsal. Most specimens resemble in general proportions those of digit III of the manus of C. rusingense, but they may be distinguished by the much more proximal orientation of the metacarpal (metatarsal) facet, which occupies less than one-third of the dorsal surface. In side view the distal trochlear keels are less convex, permitting less rotation of the middle phalanx. Intermediate volar tubercles are frequently present, as in C. rusingense. In a few specimens (one of S. priscum and two of S. turgaicum) the metacarpal facet faces more dorsally and occupies nearly half the dorsal surface, as in C. rusingense. In Moropus and Phyllotillon a similar dorsal orientation of the facet distinguishes the basal phalanx of digit II of the manus, and this may well have been true also of Schizotherium.
Middle Phalanges. (Text-fig. I8; Table IX.)
There are 28 middle phalanges in the collection. They vary in size : the larger ones probably belong to the manus and the smaller ones to the pes. The small


Fig. 18. Middle phalanges. Left, Chalicotherium rusingense, R i36.49, in lateral, dorsal and proximal views. Centre, C. rusingense, from site Rs 38. Right, Schizotherium priscum, Paris Museum. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
specimens, making up about half of the series, are more alike in size and shape than the large specimens, and it appears that the middle phalanges of the different digits of the manus are less uniform than those of the pes. The most compressed specimens, with narrow proximal and distal joint surfaces, probably belong to digit III of the manus, and the small phalanges, supposedly from the pes, are comparatively broad in relation to their length and height.

The phalanges are short, laterally compressed bones. The proximal surface is occupied by the articulation for the basal phalanx. This consists of a pair of lateral concave joint surfaces separated by a median keel. The keel runs from a pointed dorsal process, which in many specimens projects beyond the general dorsal surface of the phalanx, to a broader, truncated or slightly emarginate volar process. The volar part of the keel broadens out, the volar parts of the articulatory facets diverging from each other. The dorsal and volar parts of the keel often meet in a more or less distinct angle, corresponding to the angle in the groove of the distal articulation of the basal phalanx. In some specimens the lateral joint surfaces also show signs of a division into a dorsal part, facing proximally, and a volar part, facing more dorsally. The articulation for the basal phalanx is not symmetrically placed in relation to the median plane of the bone, but faces slightly towards the ulnar (fibular) side. The distal end of the phalanx is occupied by the articulation for the ungual phalanx. It has the form of a trochlea, consisting of a median groove and prominent lateral keels, semicircular in lateral view. Dorsally the keels are parallel, but towards the volar side they diverge slightly and the groove between them becomes shallower. The lateral surfaces of the phalanx are flattened, except at the distal margin of the proximal articulation, which projects laterally ; near the middle of each lateral surface is a pit for ligamentary attachment.

Comparisons. Except for their larger size, the middle phalanges of C. grande are indistinguishable from those of $C$. rusingense. In C. grande the phalanges of the pes are smaller and proportionately broader than those of the manus, as was postulated for C. rusingense.

A middle phalanx of Schizotherium priscum in Paris fits the larger basal phalanges. It compares in size with some phalanges of the manus of $C$. rusingense, but is relatively broader. Some middle phalanges of S. turgaicum described by Belyaeva (1954) are smaller than any of C. nusingense, and relatively broader. In the Paris specimen, the proximal articulation as a whole faces more dorsally than in C. rusingense, the volar part being more extensive and the dorsal part reduced. The distal trochlea faces more ventrally, its keels are more widely separated at their dorsal ends, and the groove between them is much shallower. S. turgaicum appears to possess the same characters. The middle phalanges of Schizotherium thus approach those of Phyllotillon and Moropus.
Ungual phalanges. (Text-fig. 19; Table IX.)
Seventeen ungual phalanges in the collection all have a similar structure, though they differ in size and proportions.

The phalanx is approximately triangular in side view, with a curved dorsal border which extends proximally to form a prominent dorsal process (preserved intact only
in Ri36.42, and almost complete in R922.47). The articulation for the middle phalanx occupies most of the proximal surface and extends along the lower side of the dorsal process. It is curved in an arc of about $100^{\circ}$, and consists of a pair of elongated joint facets separated by a median keel. Below the articulation is a median pit, probably for the flexor ligament, and on either side of this a foramen through which blood vessels passed to the bed of the claw. The terminal part of the phalanx is split by a deep cleft, extending back more than halfway along the volar and dorsal surfaces. The volar surface proximally to the cleft is swollen into a rounded boss. The lateral surfaces of the phalanx are flattened and rather rugose. The bone is not quite symmetrical : in relation to the plane of the cleft the dorsal process is directed slightly towards the ulnar (fibular) side. The articulation is also asymmetrically arranged : its dorsal end (on the dorsal process) is ulnar (fibular) to its volar end. The volar boss is displaced a little towards the ulnar (fibular) side.


Fig. 19. Ungual phalanges. A, Chaticotherium rusingense, $R$ 136.49, lateral, volar and proximal views. B, C.rusingense, R 922.47 , lateral and volar views. c, Three phalanges of Schizotherium priscum, Paris Museum. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

The phalanges fall into two groups, which are probably to be referred to the manus and pes. Those of the pes are broader in proportion to length and height, and are more deeply cut by the claw cleft, the dorsal limit of this being perpendicularly above the volar boss. The distinction is particularly clear in the region of the volar boss : in the manus the horizontal length of the boss, measured from the end of the claw cleft, is about the same as the width of the phalanx (index 80-105) : in the pes it averages a little more than half the width (index, 47-70). The phalanges of the manus are on the average higher than those of the pes (height at volar boss : manus $38-52 \mathrm{~mm}$., pes $32-42 \mathrm{~mm}$.), and also longer in volar length (manus $50-66 \mathrm{~mm}$., pes $4 \mathrm{I}-52 \mathrm{~mm}$.), but the ranges of width are similar. The radius of curvature of the proximal articulation is greater in the manus than in the pes. It has not been possible to allocate phalanges to individual digits with any certainty. It is likely that the largest phalanges belonged to digit II of the manus (e.g. R736.50 and Ri36.42) and pes (e.g. R497.42), but the preponderance of the claw on this digit of the manus was certainly much less than in Moropus.

Comparisons. There are four specimens of ungual phalanges of Schizotherium priscum in Paris, including a large specimen which compares in measurements with Ancylotherium gaudryi Filhol (1880). They are all rather broad, comparing in length/width relations with the phalanges of the pes of C. rusingense. Their height/width indices are, however, much less than in any specimen of C. rusingense, and there are various differences in detail : the dorsal process is less developed; the proximal articulation has a less prominent median keel, and its curvature is less ; the volar surface is flattened and is separated from the lateral surfaces by sharp edges. An ungual phalanx of S. turgaicum figured by Belyaeva (1954) shows similar characters, but is even lower and broader. The largest specimen of S. priscum approximates in size to the smallest specimens of C. rusingense.

The ungual phalanges of $C$. grande are so similar to those of $C$. rusingense that it is possible to distinguish them only by size.

## The Digit as a Whole. (Text-fig. 20.)

The second metatarsal MFWi214.55 fits the basal phalanx MFWi213.55 so well that they probably belong to the same individual. A satisfactory, but not perfect fit was found between the third metatarsal from R91 and the basal phalanx F2082. When the basal phalanx was placed so that the dorsal border of its articulating facet coincided with the dorsal border of the facet on the metatarsal, the angle between the dorsal surfaces of the two bones was about $72^{\circ}$. As in other chalicotheres therefore, the basal phalanx is capable of considerable hyperextension.

In this position, no appreciable rotation of the phalanx is possible round its own axis, but lateral sliding would result in some abduction or adduction of the digits. There is no evidence of the notches noticed by Matthew (1929) on the margin of the metacarpal facet of the basal phalanx of digit II in Moropus, and interpreted by him to imply two alternative positions of the digit. It is possible however that his "lateral notch" corresponds to the flattened area on the radial margin of the facet in C. rusingense, interpreted here as the insertion of an extensor ligament.

In maximum flexion the dorsal angle between the phalanx and the metatarsal opens out to no more than about $110^{\circ}$. Rotation beyond this point is prevented by the median keel on the metatarsal, which meets the notch in the proximal border of the phalanx. Presumably the more posterior part of the metatarsal joint surface was occupied by the sesamoid bones, which would remain in contact with the proximal end of the phalanx throughout the movement, being tied to it by a ligament, equivalent to the middle sesamoidal ligament of the horse.

Although the distal ends of the metacarpals of C. rusingense are not known, the similarity of the basal phalanges of the manus to those of the pes is such that considerations based on the pes may be taken to apply also to the manus. This is certainly true of $C$. grande.


Fig. 20. Reconstructed toes. A-C, Chalicotherium rusingense. A, from the manus, walking position ; B , from the pes, walking position ; c , from the manus, clinging position. D, Schizotherium priscum, walking position. E, Plagiolophus annectens, walking position.

The joint between the basal and middle phalanges shows a partial differentiation into dorsal and volar portions, representing the areas of greatest pressure during extension and flexion respectively. By fitting phalanges together it may be seen that even in maximum extension the middle phalanx turns down on the basal phalanx ; the median axis of the middle phalanx makes an angle of $10-15^{\circ}$ with
the long axis of the basal phalanx. The rotation from maximum extension to maximum flexion is $30-40^{\circ}$, so that at maximum flexion the angle between the two phalanges is about $45^{\circ}$.

Movement between the middle phalanx and the ungual phalanx is greater : the angle of rotation appears to be about $60^{\circ}$. In maximum extension, the volar surface of the ungual phalanx lies approximately parallel to the median horizontal plane of the middle phalanx, but at a lower level, leaving space beneath the middle phalanx for the flexor tendon. The total amount of bending in the digit itself would be rather more than a right angle, to which must be added $40^{\circ}$ or so at the metapodial-phalangeal joint.

When walking, the weight must have been received on the proximal ends of the basal phalanges, and presumably also on the sesamoids ; it is likely that a plantar pad existed in this region. The toes themselves did not play any part in supporting the animal. Reconstruction of complete digits shows that the claw probably rested on the ground, the toe being extended but forming an arch. By extreme extension the claw could be raised a little, which would be necessary when the animal was walking over rough ground. This is a much less specialized condition than that found in Ancylotherium pentelicum by Schaub (1943), in which the toes were held back against the dorsal sides of the metacarpals. Maximum hyperextension of the digit in C. rusingense would seem to be accounted for by pressure of the claw against the ground, aided by the main extensor ligament attached to the dorsal process of the ungual phalanx, but in Ancylotherium Schaub found it necessary to postulate the existence of elastic ligaments.

In Schizotherium the position of the proximal articulating surface of the basal phalanx shows that the degree of hyperextension must have been much less than in Chalicotherium ; it is doubtful whether the distal end of the phalanx could be raised above the proximal end. The known middle and ungual phalanges appear to indicate a digit that was straight, inclined downwards at a small angle, and placed so that the flattened volar surface of the ungual phalanx rested on the ground. The elevation of the proximal part of the basal phalanx above the ground seems to have been small, and much of the weight of the animal might well have been supported by a pad at the base of the digit ; nevertheless, the ungual phalanx must have taken some of the weight, and Schizotherium was digitigrade rather than " metacarpograde". Grangeria again seems to have had a digitigrade foot, though its ungual phalanges are unknown. Some degree of hyperextension at the metapodial-phalangeal joint is found in all perissodactyls, and the chalicotheres seem to have exaggerated this, first becoming digitigrade by modification of the distal end of the metapodial and probably receiving part of the weight on a pad in this region ; then the whole weight was received by the pad, thus permitting a higher degree of specialisation of the claws.

In C. rusingense and $C$. grande, if the basal phalanx is placed so that its most volar surface is horizontal in the transverse direction, the keels for articulation with the middle phalanx are approximately vertical, but the metatarsal is inclined so that its proximal end is medial to its distal end. This is probably the natural
position, for the greater length of the third metatarsal is such as to bring its basal phalanx to the same level as that of the second digit. In C. grande the metatarsals increase in length from the second to the fourth. If they were held vertically, only the fourth digit would reach the ground, as Matthew (1929) pointed out.

There are objections to believing that Chalicotherium walked on the outside of its foot. The fourth metatarsal and metacarpal are no stouter than the others ; in fact in the manus the second metacarpal is the stoutest. In Moropus and Ancylotherium, again, the second metatarsal is shorter but stouter than the third, though unlike Chalicotherium the fourth is shorter than the third. Schaub concluded that in Ancylotherium the weight was taken by the radial digits (II and III). It seems highly probable therefore that in Chalicotherium, as well as in Ancylotherium, the second digit touched the ground. This must imply an inclination of the whole manus or pes towards the radial or tibial side. If the feet were orientated in a normal manner, with their dorsal sides facing forwards, the limbs would have to be spread out far laterally. It would be mechanically more efficient to bring the feet beneath the body by rotating them so that the toes pointed somewhat inwards, the shortest metapodial being then the most posterior, and it is suggested that this was the position in which Chalicotherium walked.

In maximum hyperextension the basal phalanx does not lie in line with the metapodial, but is turned so that its distal end is more lateral. The plane of rotation at the metapodial-phalangeal joint is inclined, so that the two bones come to lie in the same vertical plane only in maximum flexion. The two interphalangeal joints are not in the same plane ; if the joint between the basal and middle phalanges is considered as vertical, the joint between the middle and ungual phalanges is inclined so that its dorsal side is more lateral. The effect is that when the digit is extended it is curved towards the lateral side, but as it is flexed the claw is moved medially, till it lies parallel to and almost in line with the basal phalanx. Thus in the walking position the toes would point forwards, in spite of the medial rotation of the feet, while when the toe is flexed in order to use the claw, the metapodial, phalanges and claw are nearly in the same plane.

The dorsal position of the metacarpal facet on the basal phalanx of digit II of the manus in Phyllotillon, Moropus and probably in Schizotherium, may be related to the enlargement of the claw of that digit. If the claw rested on the ground in walking, the degree of hyperextension that would be required at the metapodial-phalangeal joint would be greater the larger the claw.

Schaub suggests that the elevation of the claws in Ancylotherium was an adaptation to avoid blunting when walking on hard ground. The lack of this adaptation in Chalicotherium would imply that the animal frequented ground too soft to cause serious damage to the claws. This accords with the view of Abel (I920) that Chalicotherium (" Macrotherium") was an inhabitant of forest, where the ground would be covered with litter, while Ancylotherium ("Chalicotherium "') preferred more open country (savannah).

The shortness and stoutness of metacarpal II might be interpreted as an adaptation to clinging to tree-trunks in the manner postulated by Borissiak (1945) : the more


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$2-13^{*}$
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$5-29$
33
N





Ungual phalanges,
Manus, height
Pes, height
width
Astragalus,
width .
thickne
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Metatarsals,
Combined width
width head
width distal
III, width head

IV, length
*In the species of Schizotheriut, phalanges of the manus and pes have not been distinguished.
lateral digits would extend round the sides of the trunk and their greater length would be advantageous, but most of the pressure would be exerted by the second digit, which would be applied most perpendicularly to the surface of the trunk. In the pes, the short second digit might be associated with a straddling of the legs to give a firmer support, the claws presumably being dug into the ground.

## Proportionate Sizes of Teeth and Feet.

In the absence of associated remains it is possible to make only a very rough estimate of the size of the feet in comparison with the teeth. The method used was to divide measurements of the bones of the feet by the mean length of $\mathrm{M}_{2}$. Where more than one specimen of a bone is known, the largest specimen is compared with the largest specimen of $\mathrm{M}_{2}$ and the smallest with the smallest specimen of $\mathrm{M}_{2}$, obviously juvenile specimens being neglected. This was done also for specimens of C. grande from Sansan, for Schizotherium turgaicum and for S. priscum. (Table X.)
C. rusingense differs only slightly from C. grande. The greatest difference is its proportionately larger scaphoid, which suggests that the single specimen of this bone comes from an unusually large individual. Otherwise the differences are hardly significant : the head of the fourth metacarpal is smaller, the basal phalanx of the third digit of the manus is longer and narrower, the metatarsals are longer, and the ungual phalanges of the pes are broader.

Both species of Chalicotherium differ considerably from Schizotherium. The metacarpals are relatively broader, as is the manus as a whole. In C. grande metacarpals II and III are somewhat shorter than in S. priscum, but metacarpal IV is approximately of the same relative length. The pes of C.grande is much broader than that of S. priscum. In both species of Chalicotherium the astragalus is proportionately broader and thicker than in S. turgaicum, but of similar relative height, and the metatarsals are much shorter than in S. priscum. The phalanges of the manus are proportionately much larger in all dimensions in Chalicotherium than in Schizotherium.

## Relationships.

In the foregoing description $C$. rusingense has been compared mainly with C. grande, the best-known member of the Chalicotheriinae, and with species of Schizotherium (S. priscum and S. turgaicum), the most primitive genus of Schizotheriinae. It shows resemblances to both these forms, but the resemblances to C. grande are of greater taxonomic value, whereas those to Schizotherium are primitive characters inherited from the common ancestor of Chalicotherium and Schizotherium, perhaps in the Lower Oligocene.
C. rusingense is close to C. grande in (1) the upper molar pattern, (2) the loss of the hypoconulid of $\mathrm{M}_{3}$, (3) the reduction of the scaphoid-magnum contact, (4) characters of the head of metacarpals III and IV, (5) the broad, short metatarsals, those of digits II and III being equal in width, (6) the astragalus, which is reduced in height, and also reduced in thickness in the fibular half, (7) the greater size of the phalanges of the manus as compared with those of the pes, (8) the form of the articulating facets
on the phalanges, associated with the development of a metacarpograde stance, and (9) the ungual phalanges, which are narrower and less hoof-like than in Schizotherium.

At the same time C. rusingense is more primitive than C.grande in several respects in which it approaches Schizotherium: (I) the smaller size, (2) some features of the upper molar pattern-the protocone is frequently connected to the protoconule by a ridge, the ridge on the buccal slope of the paracone is sharper, and the accessory rib in the postfossette is frequently present, (3) the presence in most specimens of a metastylid on the lower molars, (4) the smaller degree of reduction of the premolars, (5) the greater elongation of the anterior part of the jaws, (6) the astragalus, in which the trochlea is higher and the navicular facet is less tilted towards the tibial side. (7) the less thickened metatarsals, (8) the absence of a distinct cuboid facet on metatarsal III, and the presence of two separate facets for articulation with metatarsal IV, (9) the longer basal phalanges, especially on digit III of the manus, and (Io) the better development of intermediate volar tubercles on the basal phalanges.
C. pilgrimi agrees with C. rusingense in size, in the presence of a metastylid on the lower molars, and in the characters of metatarsal II, but the upper molars of C. pilgrimi are more primitive in that the paracone and metacone have not receded so far from the buccal edge of the tooth. C. wetzleri agrees with C. rusingense in the metastylid, and perhaps in the elongation of the snout and characters of the phalanges. C. salinum, though much nearer to C. grande, shows some primitive features in the sharpness of the buccal paracone crest and the retention of the protocone-protoconule crest.
C. rusingense must therefore be regarded as a persistently primitive form not closely related to other species of the genus. Its interest lies mainly in the light it throws on the evolutionary changes involved in the derivation of the Chalicotheriinae from a form close to Schizotherium.

## Subfamily Schizotheriinae

## ANCYLOTHERIUM AND RELATED GENERA

Ancylotherium pentelicum (Gaudry \& Lartet 1856) is a characteristic member of the Pontian fauna of Pikermi, Samos and other localities in S.E. Europe, extending to Maragha in Iran (de Mecquenem 1924). Thenius (1953) pointed out the resemblances between this species and Metaschizotherium fraasi von Koenigswald (1932), from the Upper Miocene of Germany and France, and proposed to include the genus Metaschizotherium in Ancylotherium. Viret (1949) had previously considered M. fraasi to be almost identical with Phyllotillon naricus (Pilgrim 1908, 1910) from the Lower Miocene of Baluchistan. It is also necessary to consider Phyllotillon betpakdalensis (Flerov 1938), from the Upper Oligocene of Kazakhstan, which has been described in great detail by Borissiak (1946).

The upper molars of $A$. pentelicum (Thenius 1953, Wagner 1857), M. fraasi (Fraas 1870, Depéret 1892, von Koenigswald 1932), P. naricus (Pilgrim 1912, Forster Cooper 1920) and P. betpakdalensis (Borissiak 1946) are so much alike that the relationship of the species cannot be doubted. The molars of $P$. naricus
show a considerable range of size (length of $M^{3} 40-48 \mathrm{~mm}$. ; length of $\mathrm{M}^{2} 40-49 \mathrm{~mm}$.) : the specimens identified as milk-molars by Pilgrim (1912, pl. 12, fig. 3) are small examples of permanent molars. M. fraasi falls within the lower part of the size range of $P$. naricus. It is doubtful whether M. bavaricum von Koenigswald (1932) is specifically distinct from M. fraasi. P. betpakdalensis is very variable and reaches a larger size (length of $\mathrm{M}^{3} 42-60 \mathrm{~mm}$.). A. pentelicum equals or slightly exceeds the largest specimens of $P$. betpakdalensis. According to Thenius (1953) A. pentelicum differs from $M$. fraasi in the more elevated ectoloph and the weaker cingulum, but the differences do not appear to be great. P. betpakdalensis stands apart in (1) the stronger development of the buccal cingulum, (2) the straighter protoloph, which runs almost directly to the tip of the protocone, instead of bending sharply to pass up the anterior slope of the protocone, and (3) the strong development of the cingulum round the base of the hypocone in some specimens of $\mathrm{M}^{3}$, with the formation of additional cingular cusps in that region (Borissiak regarded the hypocone as a metaconule, and the cingular cusps as representing the hypocone).

There are some differences in the upper premolars. In P. naricus the deuterocone on $\mathrm{P}^{3}$ and $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ is conical, with a convex buccal slope ; it is connected to the ectoloph by a protoloph and a metaloph. In $P$. betpakdalensis the buccal slope of the deuterocone forms a more definite ridge. In $A$. pentelicum the deuterocone is crescentic, apparently with a flattened buccal slope. A specimen of $\mathrm{P}^{4}$ referred to $M$. bavaricum by von Koenigswald (1932) and a similar tooth figured by Roger (1885) are partly molarized : a small crest branches off from the metaloph to join the posterior cingulum.

The lower molars of $P$. naricus, $P$. betpakdalensis and $M$. fraasi are very similar in structure. The only lower molar of $A$. pentelicum that has been figured is $\mathrm{M}_{1}$ in a juvenile mandible (Dietrich 1928). A strongly developed metastylid is characteristic of the group.

Specimens and casts show that in P. naricus and P. betpakdalensis the infraorbital foramen is situated above $\mathrm{M}^{2}$, as in Moropus, whereas in Chalicotherium and in Schizotherium priscum it is farther forward, above M1 ${ }^{1}$. The mandibles of $P$. naricus, P. betpakdalensis and A. pentelicum (Falconer 1868) are distinguished from those of Chalicotherium in the short symphysis, which does not extend back as far as $\mathrm{P}_{2}$. According to Falconer (1868), and Major (1894), A. pentelicum lacks the lower canine and incisors, but a specimen of $P$. naricus shows traces of alveoli at the anterior end of the mandible. A juvenile mandible from St. Gérand-le-Puy, described by Filhol (1879) as Chalicotherium modicum, and now in Paris, has a short symphysis like $P$. naricus and may be referred to the genus Phyllotillon. At the anterior end it shows a large alveolus, probably for a lower canine.

The lower end of the humerus of $P$. betpakdalensis differs from $A$. pentelicum and from Moropus in the shape of the articulatory surfaces, but resembles Schizotherium turgaicum. The radius and ulna are more slender than in $A$. pentelicum; the radius is less flattened at its distal end, and fusion with the ulna is less complete.

Except for a lunate of M. fraasi described by Rinnert (1956), the carpals are known only in P. betpakdalensis (Borissiak 1946) and A. pentelicum (Schaub 1943).

Those of $P$. betpakdalensis differ from $A$. pentelicum mainly in a primitive direction : for example, the scaphoid is comparatively deep, with a well developed distal process as in Moropus ; the lunate has a prominent volar process ; the trapezoid and unciform are relatively narrow and deep, and the carpus as a whole is deeper, with more oblique articulatory facets. The lunate of $M$. fraasi resembles that of A. pentelicum.
P. betpakdalensis has a fifth digit on the manus, lost in A. pentelicum. Metacarpals II-IV are less flattened than in $A$. pentelicum, and do not show the dorsal concavity characteristic of that species.

The astragalus of $P$. betpakdalensis is higher than in $A$. pentelicum, and differs in the possession of a cuboid facet. That of M. fraasi (von Koenigswald 1932, Thenius 1953, Rinnert 1956) resembles $A$. pentelicum. In all three species the ectal facet is deeply concave, in contrast with the much shallower facet of Chalicotherium. The calcaneum is similar in the three species. In P. betpakdalensis the cuboid, navicular and ectocuneiform are much less flattened than in $A$. pentelicum; the cuboid of $M$. fraasi (Rinnert 1956) resembles that of $A$. pentelicum.

The metatarsals of $P$. betpakdalensis are much more slender than those of A. pentelicum. Phalanges of all four species are known : some of the phalanges described by Forster Cooper (1920) from the Bugti Beds are almost certainly those of $P$. naricus. Except in $P$. betpakdalensis the basal and middle phalanges of digit II normally unite. In $A$. pentelicum the basal phalanges are more flattened at the distal end than in the other species, so that the surface for articulation with the middle phalanx makes a smaller angle with the long axis of the bone. The known basal phalanges of $P$. betpakdalensis are much smaller than those of A. pentelicum (length $55-70 \mathrm{~mm}$. compared with $9 \mathrm{I}-\mathrm{II} 4 \mathrm{~mm}$.), although there is less discrepancy in the teeth ; it is possible therefore that the toes of P. betpakdalensis were proportionately smaller, as in Schizotherium.

This comparison shows that $P$. betpakdalensis stands apart from the other species. In several respects it is much more primitive than $A$. pentelicum, as would be expected from its earlier age, but it shows some specializations, such as the cuboidastragalus contact and the large size, which exclude it from the ancestry of the later species. I therefore propose to make it the type species of a new genus.

## Genus BORISSIAKIA nov.

Diagnosis. Schizotheriine chalicotheres of large size, in which the protoloph runs directly to the tip of the protocone, the scaphoid and lunate resemble those of Moropus, there are four digits on the manus, and the astragalus articulates with the cuboid.

Type and only known species, Moropus betpakdalensis Flerov (1938).

## Genus PHYLLOTILLON Pilgrim, 1910

Phyllotillon naricus and Metaschizotherium fraasi are very close, and may be conspecific as Viret (1949) suggested. Metaschizotherium therefore becomes a synonym of Phyllotillon. This genus first appears as a small unnamed species in the

Upper Oligocene of St. Gérand-le-Puy (Filhol 1879), and thus coexisted with Borissiakia betpakdalensis. Phyllotillon is probably the ancestor of Ancylotherium, from which it may be distinguished by primitive characters: (I) teeth present at the anterior end of the mandible (in Ancylotherium lower incisors and canine have disappeared) ; (2) distal ends of basal phalanges of digits III and IV less flattened. Unfortunately the skeleton is poorly known.

Genus ANCYLOTHERIUM Gaudry, 1862

## Ancylotherium hennigi (Dietrich)

Text-figs. 21A-D, 22A-D, 23A-D, 24, 25A, B, 26A, B.
1923 Chalicothere, Andrews, p. 696.
1926 Chalicotheridae, gen. et sp. indet., Hopwood, p. 19, text-fig. i.
1942 Metaschizotherium hennigi Dietrich, p. 105, pl. 4, figs. 33, 37, pl. 12, figs. $78-80,83$.
1943 Metaschizotherium hennigi Dietrich; Schaub, pp. 19, 25.
1950 Metaschizotherium transvaalensis George, p. 241, text-figs. I, 2.
1951 Metaschizotherium hennigi Dietrich; Hopwood, p. 21.
1953 Ancylotherium hennigi (Dietrich) Thenius, p. 1о3.
The occurrence of this chalicothere in Bed I at Olduvai, Tanganyika, has been reported by Hopwood (195I). The material consists of eight specimens, all from the left manus, and all collected on the same day from site THC, layer I 5. It is therefore likely to have been derived from a single individual. The specimens, which are preserved in the British Museum (Natural History), may be listed as follows :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Mi8785, scaphoid. } \\
& \text { MI8783, lunate. } \\
& \text { MI8784, cuneiform. } \\
& \text { MI8786, second metacarpal. } \\
& \text { Mi8782, third metacarpal. } \\
& \text { Mi8780, proximal phalanx. } \\
& \text { MI8781, two middle phalanges. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The scaphoid (Text-fig. 21 A-D) shows much resemblance to that of $A$. pentelicum. In proximal view it is trapezoidal rather than triangular in shape, owing to its broader volar process and flatter dorsal surface. The width ( 64.5 mm .) and length ( 75.5 mm .) are somewhat less than in the specimen measured by Schaub (1943), but greater than in a cast seen in the Paris Museum. The height ( 48 mm .) is proportionately greater than in $A$. pentelicum. The proximal surface is mainly occupied, as in A. pentelicum, by the articulation for the radius, which is nearly flat, but slightly concave in the dorsovolar direction, extending down on to the dorsal surface near the ulnar side. The articulation for the trapezoid on the distal surface is rectangular, rather than ovoid as in $A$. pentelicum. It is concave in the middle, but towards the dorsal and volar sides it is crossed by two transverse convexities, that on the volar side being the sharper of the two. The articulating surface is continuous with that
for the magnum, the line of separation being marked by a blunt dorsovolar ridge which rises to a cusp near each end. The magnum facet is broader near its volar end and extends as a tongue (rather broader than in $A$. pentelicum) to near the dorsal side. On the ulnar side there are two facets for the lunate, more widely separated than in


Fig. 21. Left scaphoids of Ancylotherium. A-D, A. hennigi, BMNH. Mi8785. A, proximal view ; B, distal view ; c, ulnar view ; D, dorsal view. E-H, A. pentelicum, laris specimen, corresponding views. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
Key to facets : l.d. l.p., lunate (distal and proximal) ; $m$, magnı $m$; $r$, radius; $t$. trapezoid.


Fig. 22. Left lunates of Ancylotherium. A-D, A. hennigi, BMNH. Mi8783. A, proximal view ; B, distal view ; C, radial view ; D, dorsal view. E-H, A. pentelicum, Paris specimen, corresponding views. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
Key to facets : m, magnum ; $r$, radius ; s.d,s.p, scaphoid (distal and proximal) ; un unciform.
A. pentelicum ; the distal one is slightly concave, and separated from the magnum facet only by a blunt ridge ; the proximal lunate facet is flat, and makes an angle of about $70^{\circ}$ with the radius facet.

The lunate (Text-fig. $22 \mathrm{~A}-\mathrm{D}$ ) (width 64 mm ., length 6 Imm ., height 58 mm .) is somewhat smaller than Schaub's specimen, and larger than a cast measured in Paris.

In comparison with the Paris cast it appears in proximal view to be more drawn out in an oblique direction from radiodorsal to ulnovolar. The proximal surface is completely occupied by the articulating surface for the radius, more definitely rhomboidal than in A. pentelicum, but as in that species convex in the dorsovolar direction and to a lesser degree also in the transverse direction. The radial surface bears as in A. pentelicum a proximal facet for the scaphoid, flat and triangular, and


Fig. 23. Cuneiforms of Ancylotherium. A-D, A. hennigi, BMNH. Mi $878_{4}$, from left manus. A, proximal view ; в, distal view ; C, radial view ; D, dorsal view. E-H, A. pentelicum, BMNH. Mif346, from right manus (reversed), corresponding views. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
Key to facets: l, lunate ; ul, ulna ; un, unciform.
divided from the smaller, elongated, convex distal scaphoid facet by a groove, into which open some nutritive foramina. The distal surface is divided by a rounded ridge which connects a dorsal to a volar cusp, and separates the articulatory surfaces for the magnum and the unciform. Each of these surfaces is convex dorsally and concave in its central and volar parts. In comparison with $A$. pentelicum the distal surface is triangular rather than quadrate, as the volar process is small and situated more towards the ulnar side of the bone. On the ulnar side the articulation for the unciform passes insensibly into that for the cuneiform, which is confined to the distal part of the ulnar side.

The cuneiform (Text-fig. $23 \mathrm{~A}-\mathrm{D}$ ) (width 53.5 mm ., length 82 mm ., height 43.5 mm .) is slightly smaller than the British Muscum specimen of A. pentelicum (Mir346), which it closely resembles. It is a flattened bone, ovoid in proximal view, with the greatest diameter from radiodorsal to ulnovolar. Most of the proximal surface is occupied by the articulating facet for the ulna, concave in a dorsovolar direction. Near the volar edge this facet adjoins that for the pisiform, the separation being merely by a gentle convexity. On the distal surface of the cuneiform is the saddle-shaped facet for the unciform, concave in a dorsovolar direction and slightly convex transversely. This facet occupies rather more of the central portion of the distal surface than in $A$. pentelicatm. Radially it adjoins the facet for the lunate. The height of the cuneiform is greatest near its dorsal side.

The second metacarpal (Text-fig. 24) has suffered some surface damage at its proximal end, and the distal end is lacking. As preserved, the distal surface possesses radially arranged ridges on the surface of the spongiosa which indicate that the epiphysis was still separate. The thin compacta, with numerous vascular canals, supports the view that the specimen was a juvenile. The metacarpal is slightly smaller than the corresponding bone of A. pentelicum in the British Museum ( $M_{4426}$ ) (the greatest length as preserved is 165 mm .). In proximal view the head of the bone appears more compressed laterally than in A. pentelicum. There is a prominent dorso-ulnar process and a small radial process. The centre of the proximal surface is occupied by the facet for the trapezoid, flattened and slightly saddleshaped, and not so definitely concave as in $A$. pentelicum. On its ulnar side is a flat facet for the magnum, narrower than in $A$. pentelicum. On the ulnar side of the bone, adjoining the magnum facet, is the overhung facet for metacarpal III, forming the proximal border of a pit. Schaub (1943) identified in $A$. pentelicum a smooth area immediately to the volar side of the trapezoid facet as a surface which contacted the scaphoid in extremc flexion of the carpus. An apparently corresponding area can be recognised in A. hennigi, but it is less distinct from the trapezoid facet. Another smooth area on the volar surface of the radial process may have had the same function. The shaft of the metacarpal is straight and nearly as thick as wide in the middle of its length; it does not show the dorsovolar flattening of A. pentelicum. The radial surface is smoothly convex transversely, very slightly concave longitudinally. The dorsal surface is marked by a longitudinal shallow groove which arises proximally about 5 cm . below the dorsal apophysis and fades
out distally. It corresponds to a much broader and deeper groove in $A$. pentelicum, where the dorsal and ulnar surfaces are divided by a prominent crest ; this crest is very poorly developed in A. hennigi. In both species the ulnar surface is scarred near its proximal end for ligamentary attachment, and the proximal part of the volar surface is irregularly pitted and pierced by numerous foramina. Immediately distal to the pitted area the volar surface is roughened for ligamentary attachment. In A. hennigi the volar surface is more convex transversely than in $A$. pentelicum.


Fig. 24. Left second metacarpal of Ancylotherium hennigi, BMNH. Mis786, A, dorso-radial view ; B, proximal view ; B, ulnovolar view. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.
Key : $m$, magnum facet ; $m c$, facet for metacarpal III ; $s$, possible contacts with scaphoid; $t$, trapezoid facet.

Both ends of the third metacarpal have broken off. The shaft is broader and flatter than that of metacarpal II, but in comparison with $A$. pentelicum the ulnar side of the bone is much thicker, the dorsal longitudinal groove is less marked, and the ridge separating the dorsal and ulnar surfaces is less developed. As in A. pentelicum the dorsal surface is concave in a longitudinal direction. On the volar side there is a rather deep longitudinal groove, more marked than in A. pentelicum. The ulnar surface is extensively roughened, especially proximally. The proximal part of the radial surface shows a slight longitudinal groove. The proximal end of a third metacarpal of A. hennigi has been described by Dietrich (1942), but his description is not sufficiently detailed to permit comparison with $A$. pentelicum.


Fig. 25. A, Ancylotherium hennigi, basal phalanx, BMNH. M18780, dorsal and side views. B, BMNH. M12673, from Kaiso, dorsal and side views. c, $A$. pentelicum, co-ossified basal and middle phalanges, BMNH. Mgo44, side view. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

The basal phalanx (Text-fig. 25A, B) shows most resemblance to one of Major's specimens of $A$. pentelicum, referred by Schaub (1943, fig. 22) to digit IV of the manus. However, it is shorter (length 8 Imm ., against 105 mm . in Major's specimen) and less broadened at the proximal end (width 52 mm ., against 65 mm .). The Pikermi specimen in Paris differs from both of these in being fused with the middle phalanx. The distal half of the phalanx is much flattened, the dorsovolar diameter of the shaft being only about $60 \%$ of the transverse diameter. The articulatory surface for the middle phalanx is flattened and displaced to the volar side of the bone. The metacarpal articulation faces somewhat more dorsally than in the phalanx of $A$. hennigi described by Dietrich (1942) and referred by Schaub (1943) to digit IV, but both specimens agree in the presence of a step in the dorsal surface immediately distal to the articulation ; this step occurs also in Major's specimen of $A$. pentelicum. Dietrich's specimen is a little larger (length 92 mm ., proximal breadth 59 mm .), but more narrowed at the distal end.

The phalanx from the Pleistocene of Kaiso, Uganda (Andrews 1923, Hopwood 1926) is similar in size to the Olduvai specimen, but differs in a number of respects. The metacarpal articulation lies nearly in the plane of the dorsal surface, and is
proportionately longer and narrower ; the proximal end of the bone is flatter, and the distal end much deeper. The distal end is broken, and it seems possible that its depth is due to fusion with the middle phalanx. This specimen is referred to digit II of the manus, probably of $A$. hennigi.

The two middle phalanges (Text-fig. 26A, B) resemble A. pentelicum in the relatively flat proximal articulation, with a rather weak median ridge, and in the shallow trochlear groove at the distal end. One specimen fits the basal phalanx, and may therefore be referred to digit IV. It differs from the second specimen in being shorter, in having a more vertical proximal articulation (the proximal volar process being less prominent) and a shallower trochlear groove. The specimen described by Dietrich (1942) resembles the middle phalanges from Olduvai, but it is much smaller, and was probably correctly referred by Dietrich to the pes.


Fig. 26. Niddle phalanges of Ancylotherium. A, в, A. hennigi, BMNH. Mi878ı. c, A. pentelicum, BMNH. M9042. All $\times \frac{1}{2}$.

The Olduvai chalicothere resembles Ancylotherium pentelicum in numerous details of the bones of the manus, and it is therefore placed in the genus Ancylotherium rather than Phyllotillon ( $=$ Metaschizothcrium). The resemblance of Metaschizotherium hennigi to $A$. pentelicum was previously noted by Schaub (1943), and Thenius (1953) transferred M. hennigi to Ancylothcrium. The Olduvai material is almost
certainly to be identified as A. hennigi, but direct comparison is possible only to a very limited extent owing to the fragmentary nature of the material. This also applies to Metaschizotherium transvaalensis George (1950), based upon an ungual phalanx and some teeth from Makapansgat. To judge from the published figures, upper molars from Makapansgat and the Serengeti are very similar, in spite of a difference in length/breadth index, and specific distinction seems hardly justified on present knowledge.
A. hennigi differs from $A$. pentelicum notably in that the metacarpals are less flattened and hollowed out dorsally, and the scaphoid is deeper. This suggests that A. hennigi was less specialised than the Pontian species and not directly derived from it.

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[^0]:    *Specimen numbers beginning R , Sgr or MFW are field numbers indicating locality (Rusinga, Songhor or Mfwangano respectively) and year of collection. These specimens are the property of the National Museum of Kenya, Nairobi, Registration numbers of National Museum of Kenya, Nairobi specimens begin with F , those of the British Museum (Natural History) with M.

